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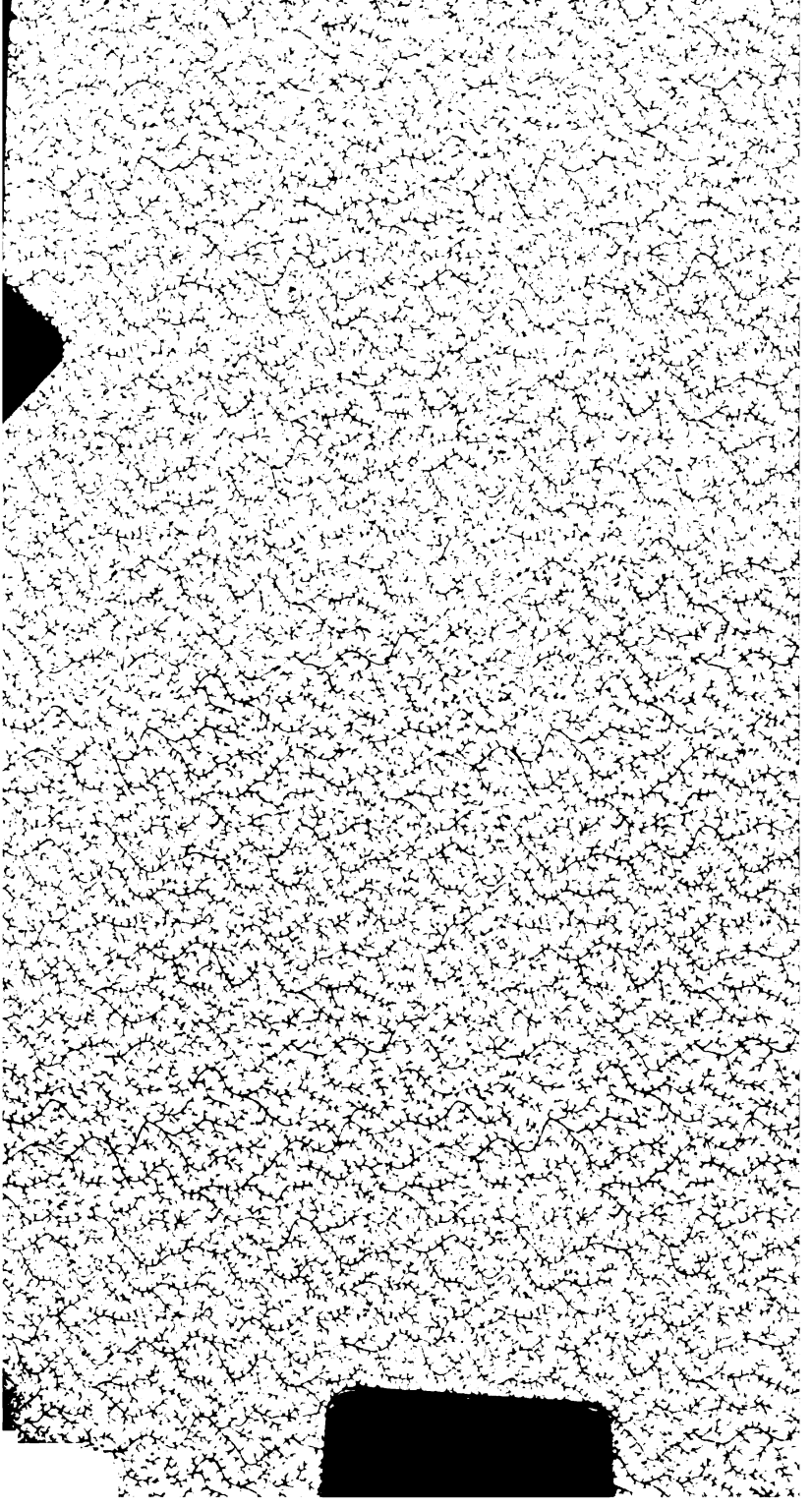

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ERRATA in Vol. LXXIII.

Page 37. l. 16. put a comma after 'Mummers.'
71. l. 18. for 'at,' r. *to*.
117. l. 2. put a comma after 'join.'
165. l. 22. *dele* the semi colon after 'extent.'
235. l. 6. for 'inclined,' r. *disposed*.
285. l. 25. put a note of interrogation after 'Apostles.'
428. l. 4. from bottom, after 'expanding,' insert *it*.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JANUARY, 1814.

ART. I. *A Journey through Persia, Armenia, and Asia Minor, to Constantinople*, in the Years 1808 and 1809, in which is included some Account of the Proceedings of His Majesty's Mission, under Sir Harford Jones, Bart., K. C., to the Court of the King of Persia. By James Morier, Esq., His Majesty's Secretary of Embassy to the Court of Persia. With twenty-five Engravings from the Designs of the Author; a Plate of Inscriptions, and three Maps; one from the Observations of Captain James Sutherland; and two drawn by Mr. Morier, and Major Rennel. 4to. pp. 454. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

THE empire of Persia acts so conspicuous a part in the history of the world, that it is at all times an object of liberal curiosity. Events have also recently conspired to connect with it rather strongly the interests of Englishmen: it is one of those kingdoms, the influence of which extends to our Indian dominions; and, by its condition and proceedings, our peace and prosperity in those distant regions are liable to be not slightly affected.

As long as our principal acquisitions in India were confined to a few provinces on that side of it which is the farthest removed from Persia, and as long as we had powerful antagonists in India who occupied all our attention nearer home, Persia was to us a secondary consideration, and but feebly excited our curiosity. The number of English travellers, who selected that region as the scene of their explorations, was small; and even when the East-India Company had occasion to send their servants over-land, few of them regarded the objects which offered themselves to their eye in any part of Persia as worthy of being described, and still fewer took much pains to collect information for the use either of themselves or their countrymen.

Lately, however, Persia has assumed in our minds a new station of importance. We have extended our dominion over so great a portion of India, that our boundaries now approach those of the Persian empire; and we have so few competitors for power and dominion remaining in India, that we are

enabled to look abroad, and to find them at a greater distance. Bonaparte, likewise,—who during a considerable number of years has been the main spring of our national movements, and to whom, at the same time that in words we treated him and his power with sovereign contempt, in our actions we ascribed something like omnipotence,—contributed to awaken our sensibility on the subject of Persia. He threatened India; and he threatened to avail himself, in some way, we could not tell how, of Persia, in his formidable attempts to wrest from us our eastern empire. It then appeared to be high time to have some communication, in good earnest, with the people and government of that kingdom.

Among the circumstances by which we were or affected to be frightened, in the conduct of Tippoo Saib, was not only the sort of intercourse which he maintained with the French, but that which he opened with the Persians; as if a power at the distance of Persia could avail a prince at the farthest extremity of India. Had Persia, indeed, been able to make a diversion in his favour by attacking the English dominions on the northern frontier, it might have favoured the schemes of Tippoo: but Persia was separated from the English frontier by two nations, the Afghans and the Seiks, who were perfectly able to resist its incursions; and with whom its coalition was not an event to be feared. Be this, however, as it may, Tippoo Saib had an embassy at the court of Fatteh Ali Shah, King of Persia; and the Marquis Wellesley, as Governor-General of India, thought it was necessary that his honourable masters should have a rival mission. It was confided, however, not to an Englishman, but to a Mohammedan of Persian extraction, named Mehede Ali Khan.

After the death of Tippoo, the nation known by the name of Afghans, consisting of the race of mountaineers inhabiting the elevated districts on the eastern side of Persia, appeared to the Governor-General to entertain hostile designs. They had at various periods formed a part of the great Persian empire, and had been numbered among the subjects of Cyrus and Darius, as well as those of the Khalifs. From the decline, however, of the Khalifate, when the provinces of Persia successively assumed independence, or submitted to foreign arms, Afghanistan had most commonly maintained a sort of government of its own, and at times had risen to great strength and ascendancy. It accomplished the first Mohammedan conquest of India, and gave to that country its first Mohammedan dynasty. It yielded to the superiority of the Moguls: but it grew into importance again on the decline of the Mogul government, possessed itself of several of the upper provinces of India, and carried its ravages

to the very capital, of which it was twice in possession. The power to which, during the same period, the Mahrattas had ascended, was alone able to oppose a check to the overwhelming armies of the Afghans. One of the most memorable battles that ever was fought in India took place on the plains of Paniput, in the year 1766, between the Afghans and the Mahrattas, in which the flower of each nation was destroyed; and which so diminished the forces of both, that a field was left open for the English to play with ease that splendid game of conquest of which the history is fresh in our minds. Some movements of Zemaun Shah, the King of the Afghans, about the year 1800, attracted the attention and jealousy of the Anglo-Indian government; and Captain Malcolm (now Sir John) was deputed, in considerable state, on a sort of diplomatic mission, to sollicit the alliance of Persia against a chief who was equally formidable to both governments. A treaty was not only concluded, but a Persian mission was sent to Calcutta; and the connection of the two countries remained on this complimentary footing, till, lo! a French interest was traced at the court of Persia. *Mons. Jouannin*, whom Mr. Morier flatters with the appellation of 'an intelligent Frenchman,' not only gained the ear of Fatteh Ali Shah and his ministers, but actually prevailed on them to send a mission in 1806 to Bonaparte, between whom and Persia a treaty was concluded at Finkinstein, in May 1807. Immediately afterward, a formal embassy, with General Gardanne at its head, was dispatched from France to Persia. The imitative faculty of the English government was now summoned to action: it behoved them also to appoint an embassy to Persia; and Sir Harford Jones, whose long residence in that kingdom gave him a knowlege of the language and of the manners of the people, was chosen his Majesty's envoy-extraordinary and minister-plenipotentiary to its court. The post of secretary was filled by Mr. Morier. The embassy sailed from England in October 1807, and arrived in the April following at Bombay: where the Envoy learnt that Brigadier-General Malcolm (the gentleman just mentioned) had been already sent by the Governor-General to Persia. As the Brigadier, however, did not succeed, Sir Harford Jones continued his course; and, after having been detained by political arrangements at Bombay till September, he reached Bushire, in the Persian gulph, in the middle of October, proceeded towards the Persian capital in December, reached it on the 14th of February 1809, and signed a preliminary treaty on the 12th of March.

Mr. Morier very properly does not pretend to have learned all that is worthy of being known respecting a great country, during a residence of six months, and professes only to tell us

what he saw and heard in a progress from Bushire, through Shiraz, Persepolis, Ispahan, Teheran, Tabriz, Arz-roum, and Amasia, to Constantinople. This route, which on his return he took in company with Mirza Abul-Hassan, the Persian envoy to England, afforded a tolerably complete specimen, at any rate, of the country; and, during the time which Mr. Morier enjoyed for making his remarks, his opportunities were in many respects better than those that are commonly afforded. Moreover, the powers of observation and reflection with which he is endowed are not of an inferior class; and we know not that, during the period which he spent in the country, it would be easy to collect the materials of a much more instructive book. His faculties are ever on the alert; and, though perhaps his mind is not so stored and exercised as to see far below the surface of things, he allows not much to escape him that appears on that surface.

It is remarkable that, after the general outline of an empire so little advanced in civilization as Persia, and governed by a despotism so rude and simple as that under which it groans, has once been given, all succeeding surveys and details add very little to our knowlege, and gratify in a very slight degree our curiosity. It is also surprising in how short a time, in such a region, the ground of inquiry becomes exhausted. The machinery and play of government are quickly understood, the condition of the people is every where the same, and the cause of their wretchedness is apparent. It exhibits few conditions in life and few characters: one sort of qualities pervades the nation: the occupations are limited: the arts, both necessary and ornamental, are rude; and the whole presents at once a monotonous and a disgusting spectacle. The bounties of nature are lavished in vain. A government made for the benefit only of one, (and a government made for the benefit of a few comes under the same description,) in which the creatures that obey are treated as formed only for the benefit of those that rule, curses the very ground on which its hateful existence is placed; and fertility itself becomes barren, or nourishes only the seeds of pestilence and disease.

Hence it arises that few books of travels, or even of history, relating to countries in a similar state of civilization and government with those of Asia, are agreeable to read. The picture of human misery and degradation is deplorable: and human nature, submitting patiently from age to age to the abuse which is poured on it, not only ceases to excite respect, but becomes the object of contempt. We take little interest in the pleasures or pains of such a people; since they seem to be a species of creatures for whom it is not worth our while

to feel, because they are incapable of feeling for themselves, or at least of acting as their feelings ought to direct. If the reader be of a philanthrophic and compassionating temper, he grieves; if he be of strong and ardent feelings, he is filled with indignation. In either case, the sensations are painful, and the book which produces them is an unpleasant companion. Social intercourse,—which in general affords the most engaging subjects of description to those who travel among a civilized people, and subjects that always excite our curiosity and affections because they awaken so many of our most delightful associations,—is entirely unknown in countries such as those of which we are speaking. No conversation can subsist among a people who are afraid to speak. Their entertainments are scenes of ceremony, unattended by feelings of sympathy, and yield trouble rather than delight. Among a civilized race, the ingenious products of their industry, — the equally ingenious processes by which that industry accomplishes its ends,—the animating spectacle of that industry itself, nursed by hope, and generating comfort and satisfaction,—present a most delightful field of observation; of which the delineation, if even tolerably well performed, never ceases to interest and instruct. In countries, however, in which no man has any thing that he can call his own, no industry exists: but a few live in a kind of barbarous splendour on the plunder of the many; they themselves being in perpetual terror of that catastrophe which seldom fails in a very short time to involve in one common ruin their fortune, families, and life. The great mass of the people, on the robbery of whom every man in authority subsists, seek only the means of the most wretched existence, and dread the thought of appearing to possess any thing beyond what is necessary to save them from punishment.

In civilized states, that is to say, in states which have enjoyed *some* share at least of the advantages of good government, we find a variety of classes and of characters; the description of whom, of the shades by which they are diversified, of the contrasts and connections which they exhibit, and of the complicated and interesting whole which united they compose, excites our warmest curiosity, and rouses into action some of our most interesting affections. On the other hand, countries in that unhappy state of civilization and government in which Persia and the Asiatic kingdoms in general are placed, present even in appearance only two classes; that of tyrants and that of slaves; with neither of whom can we sympathize, and of whose proceedings we hear only to suffer disgust and horror from the conception. The fact is, however, that such countries possess only *one* class; because it is the slave

of to-day who is the master of to-morrow, and whose situation only, not his character, is changed. A very great proportion of those who rise to a share, generally very short-lived, of the power of tyrannizing, were not merely slaves in the general acceptation of the word, and raised from the common class of the people, but slaves in the most cruel and restricted sense,—the objects of purchase and sale like buffaloes and horses. When a fellow, at once supple and daring, with a head of some fertility, and a heart which can either crawl in the dust or soar to the sky as occasion may prompt, happens to fall into the service of a man in power, whose confidence he gains, he rises commonly from one stage to another, and not unfrequently ends by supplanting his master, destroying both him and his family.

As we have already stated, the first place in Persia, at which the ambassador and his suite arrived, was Bushire; where they were immediately treated with some of the most interesting and customary scenes of an arbitrary monarchy. An agent had just been sent from Shiraz, who, having concealed his purpose for some days, seized the governor by surprise, and sent him to his master to receive the reward of all his services and the consummation of all his troubles. His office was intended to devolve on 'Mahomed Nebee Khan, who is known to the English as the Persian embassador at Calcutta, and who had procured the succession to the government of Bushire, at the price, it was said, of 40,000 *tomauns.*'

"He was originally a Moonshee, who got his bread by transcribing books and writing letters for money. He taught Sir Harford Jones, when a young man at Bussora, to read and write Arabic and Persian. He afterwards became a merchant, selling small articles in the Bazar at Bushire, and being fortunate in his early trade, extended his speculations still more largely and successfully: till, when an embassy to Calcutta was projected by the King of Persia, he was enabled to appear (according to the report of his countrymen) as the highest bidder for the office, and was consequently invested with it. Having enriched himself enormously by his mission, he has yet never failed to complain before the King, of the evil stars which, by leading him to accept such a situation, had reduced him to beggary."

The brother of the intended governor, whose name was Mahomed Jaffer, was in the town; and, after some commotions, he was appointed to the chief command, till Mahomed Nebee should arrive. Another chief, however, in the mean time obtained possession of power, seized Mahomed Jaffer, threw him into prison, and fastened him to the wall by a chain. Mahomed Nebee was stung with the disgrace that was thus inflicted on his family: he swore that he would not rest till the

the head of his brother's enemy was cut off; and his influence was sufficiently great to procure the appointment of Jaffer to the government of Bushire. Mr. Morier here observes:

'I must not omit as a specimen of Persian character, the mode of communication which notified this change at Bushire. The Prince's messenger that brought the intelligence from Shiraz of the disgrace of the Nasakchee Bashee, came into the presence of Mahomed Jaffer, and told him, "Come, now is the time to open your purse-strings; you are now no longer a merchant or in prison; you are now no longer to sell *dungaree*, (a species of coarse linen); you are a governor; come, you must be liberal, I bring you good intelligence; if I had been ordered to cut off your head, I would have done it with the greatest pleasure; but now, as I bring you good news, I must have some money." The man that said this was a servant, and the man that bore it was the new Governor of Bushire.

'In a few days Mahomed Jaffer paid us a visit, in appearance perfectly unconscious of the indignities which he had suffered. But the habitual despotism which the people are born to witness, familiarises them so much to every act of violence which may be inflicted on themselves, or on others, that they view all events with equal indifference, and go in and out of prison, are bastinadoed, fined, and exposed to every ignominy, with an apathy which nothing but custom and fatalism could produce.'

Nothing is more remarkable in these countries than the extreme familiarity which exists between the weak and the powerful, notwithstanding the abject submission with which the cruelty and oppression of the latter are endured; and this, in fact, operates, as a species of compensation to the miserable. Little of that humiliation is there felt which the pride of rank produces in the bosoms of the poor, in countries in which hereditary distinctions exist, and the people are considered as constituting one cast and those who possess wealth and distinction as another. In Persia, the man who now domineers was lately oppressed; and the man who is now in in the meanest of stations may quickly be lord over the lives and fortunes of thousands. All are of one rank; and the servant regards the master as no more than a man of the same class with himself, but by accident (or rather by fate) armed with a power to which it is necessary for him to submit.

Mr. Morier's account of the mode of raising the revenue is highly instructive; both because it expresses so much respecting the condition and happiness of the people, and because it resembles so nearly the mode of levying the revenue which the English found established in India, and which under certain modifications they have continued:

'The different ranks of civil governors are — 1st. The Beglerbeg, who generally resides in the large cities, and controuls the province

around: 2d. The Hakim; and 3d. the Thaubet, who severally govern a city or a town: 4th. The Kelounter, who, besides the real governor, resides in every city, town, and village, and superintends the collection of the tribute: 5th. The Ket Khoda, who is the chief of a village: 6th. The Pak-kar, who is servant, or *Hommes d'Affaires* to the Ket Khoda, and who transacts the business with the Rayat or peasant. The Pak-kar accounts with the Ket Khoda, and he again with the Kelounter.

'The Kelounter is a man of consequence wherever he presides; he is an officer of the crown, and once a-year appears before the royal presence, an honour which is not permitted to the Ket Khoda. He also receives wages from the King's treasury, which the Ket Khoda does not. The Kelounter is the medium through which the wishes and wants of the people are made known to the King: he is their chief and representative on all occasions, and brings forward the complaints of the Rayats, whenever they feel oppressed. He also knows the riches of every Rayat, and his means of rendering the annual tribute: he therefore regulates the quota that every man must pay; and if his seal be not affixed to the documents which the Rayat brings forward in the time of the levy, the assessment is not valid, and the sum cannot be received.

'The three principal branches of the tribute which the people pay, are 1st. Maleeat; 2d. Sader; and 3d. Peish-kesh.

'The Maleeat is the hereditary original right of the crown, and consists in produce and money. The King gets in kind one-fifth of the produce of the land, i. e. of wheat, barley, silk, tobacco, indigo, &c. and articles of that description; and one-fifth in money of all the vegetables, fruit, and lesser produce of the earth, which the proprietor may sell. Though the proportion be paid in kind, yet it is assessed, not by the actual levy of every fifth sheaf, &c. but by an indirect criterion of produce, deduced from the number of oxen kept by the landholder; and this part of the revenue is collected accordingly by a corresponding rate imposed upon the growth of the land. Thus the possessor of twelve oxen is supposed to possess also an extent of land, the cultivation of which may require that number, and is therefore assessed to pay a quantity of corn proportioned to the assumed amount of his gross receipt.

'The King collects one-fifth also in money of all the vegetables, fruits, and lesser produce of the earth, which the proprietor may sell. Formerly these tributes, either in kind or in money, were only one-tenth: but their amount has been doubled by the present King.

'The inhabitants of towns pay according to an assessment imposed on the place, and founded on the number of houses which it may contain, and not according to their individual means. And this levy on any particular town is but a part only of that charged on the district which contains it; thus Ispahan, which for instance has Koom and Kashan within its administration, is required to furnish a specified sum, of which it pays part, and divides the rest among the second-rate towns, which again subdivide their own proportions among the villages around; and collect, each in their gradations, the appointed

appointed amount of the tribute, and transfer the whole to the royal treasury. The government requires that the collector of any given district should supply a stated sum, but it permits him likewise to add, as his own profit, whatever he can further exact. Most of these offices are bought and sold. By the amount therefore of the purchase is regulated the rate of oppression. The scale descends; every minor agent is expected to accomplish an appointed task; but is left to choose his own means, and to have no other controul but his own conscience. This is the practice, whatever may be the theory of the administration of the revenue.

'The Sader is an arbitrary tax, and is the most grievous to the Rayat. It admits every species of extortion, and renders the situation of the peasant extremely precarious. This impost is levied on particular occasions, such as the passage of any great man through the country, the local expences of a district, or on other opportunities which are continually recurring; so that the Rayat is never certain of a respite. It is assessed in the same manner upon the number of oxen which he may keep. Thus, if sheep are wanted, he who keeps one ox is obliged to give a sheep, and so on with every other demand which may be made.

'The Peish-Kesh. This is called indeed a voluntary gift, but it must be offered every year at the festival of the Norooz; and like the regular taxes, is required in the same proportion, according to the means of the people.

'By these taxations the condition of the cultivators is rendered more particularly wretched. On the contrary, the merchants are less oppressed than any class in Persia. The shop-keeper, indeed, (dukianda) pays tribute; but the proper merchant, (sodager) a distinct order, pays nothing at all to the state, except the duties of the customs, which are comparatively very small, being about one-tenth on the imports; and as they are not affected by any other imposition, they are the most wealthy part of the community.'

In all governments, it appears,—both those which are the most rude and those which are the most refined,—the revenue, and the mode of levying it, constitute the grand burthen or grievance of the body of the people. This difference, indeed, subsists between despotisms and those governments which admit some securities to liberty, that the former can adopt other modes of oppression, while the latter cannot easily oppress through any but the ordinary channels of revenue. This is a most important truth, demanding the incessant attention of all those who live under goverments in a certain degree free. It is through the channels of revenue that almost all which they have to dread can by possibility invade them. The lessons of wisdom, therefore, to them, are nearly summed up in the grand precept, to maintain a severe and vigilant watch over such channels: viz. that of receipt or collection, and that of disbursement. The people are liable to suffering both by the quantity and the mode, in the channel of receipt and collection; and

and they are exposed to the mighty dangers of having their rights and privileges bartered away to *influence*, by the quantity and mode in the channel of disbursement. It is through these *media* that a limited monarchy has a perpetual tendency to become unlimited; and that through the one of them the ruinous effects of an unlimited monarchy are chiefly introduced. The system of revenue is the most defective part of the fabric of English government in India; the main cause of the oppression which the people continue to feel; and the chief source of vexation and toil to those who are intrusted with the business of administration.—With regard to the population of Persia, we have in this volume a statement which cannot fail to excite some interesting reflections:

'The aggregate of the population of Persia is divided into tribes, part of which live in fixed habitations, and others (the larger proportion indeed, and all the Arabs,) live in tents. These tribes never emigrate from their own districts, but all have their winter and summer regions; in the former pitching their tents in the plain, in the latter on the summits and declivities of their mountains. To these districts they adhere strictly, as the line of demarcation for the pasturage of their flocks has been observed from ages the most remote. Each has its records, and can trace its genealogy to the first generation. The most considerable and renowned are the Baktiar, that spread themselves over the province of Irauk; the Failee, that live about the mountains of Shooster or Susa, and extend their frontiers to those of the Baktiars; the Affshars, that live near the lake of Shahee; the Lacs, that are near Casvin.'

It is an important circumstance that, of the whole population of the kingdom of Persia, reduced as it is in limits compared with the extent which it has frequently known, 'the larger proportion' is still in the wandering state,—still in the condition of houseless Tartars,—still in the stage of society which is nearest to the savage,—still deprived even of the benefit of the plough. If any thing were wanting to prove in the most striking manner how unfavourably to human nature despotism operates, it is surely this. From the date of the earliest historical records, Persia has existed in the form of a monarchy, and so far advanced in civilization as to compose a large community; yet so many revolving ages have beheld its barbarous, suffering, degraded population in the same condition, without improvement, without arts, industry, knowlege, or morality.

A passage in Mr. Morier's detail, which relates to the military character of the Persians, is worthy of notice; and indeed they have always been distinguished as among the most warlike of the people of the East. The prince here introduced was that son of the King to whom the government of

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the province of Aderbigian was intrusted, and the governor mentioned was the governor of the city of Tabriz, which the prince had made his capital:

'The Governor talked of his Prince's horsemanship, and skill in the chase, which were unequalled. He told me that at full gallop the Prince could shoot a deer with a single ball, or, with the arrow from his bow, hit a bird on the wing. He combines, indeed, the three great qualities of the antient Persians, which Xenophon enumerates, riding, shooting with the bow, and speaking truth. His countrymen, however, are, in general, less severe in their estimate of the requisites of a great character, and are content to omit the last trait of excellence; but they never praise any one without placing in the foremost of his virtues his horsemanship; in which alone, perhaps, they possess any national pride. I once, in fact, was in some danger of a serious dispute, by hazarding a doubt, that the Turks rode better than the Persians. It is quite ridiculous to hear them boast of their own feats on horseback, and despise the cavalry of every other nation. They always said, "Perhaps your infantry may surpass ours; but our horsemen are the first in the world; nothing can stand before their activity and impetuosity." In fact, they have courage—one of the first qualities of a horseman; they ride without the least apprehension over any country, climb the most dangerous steeps over rock and shrub; and keep their way in defiance of every obstacle of ground. They have also a firm seat, and that on a saddle which, among an hundred different sorts, would be called the least commodious. But that is all; they understand nothing of a fine hand, nor indeed with their bridles can they learn; for they use only a strong snaffle, fastened to the rein by an immense ring on each side, which they place indifferently in the strongest or weakest mouths: nor do they know how to spare their horses and save them unnecessary fatigue; for their pace is either a gallop on the full stretch, or a walk. As a nation, as fit stuff for soldiers, I know of no better materials. The Persian possesses the true qualities of the soldier; active, inured to labour, careless of life, admiring bravery, and indeed (as the chief object of their ambition) aspiring to the appellation of *resheed* or courageous.'

The remark that, as a nation, the Persians are 'fit stuff for soldiers,' applies to all others with so few exceptions that it conveys but little praise. Even the effeminate, indolent, and timid Hindoos, of whom among all men any such expectation was the least likely to be realized, make brave and active soldiers when commanded and disciplined by Europeans. This is a fact with regard to human nature which is of great importance in the transactions of empires. The nation which is most accustomed to indulgences, and whom it is most difficult and expensive to feed, are the people who make the worst common soldiers; because on an average they are sure to be equalled, and in facility of maintenance and endurance of labour

labour and privation (qualities of the last importance in war) they are sure to be excelled, by people of other circumstances and habits.

With regard to the attempts of the Persians in the fine arts, they are described by Mr. Morier as rude, indeed, but striking. He thus speaks of their music:

'A band of choice musicians and songsters was introduced into the apartment where we were seated. A player on the *kamouncha* really drew forth notes, which might have done credit to the better instruments of the West: and the elastic manner with which he passed his bow across the strings convinced me that he himself would have been an accomplished performer even among those of Europe, if his ear had been tutored to the harmonies and delicacies of our science. The notes of their guitar corresponded exactly to those of our instrument. Another sung some of the odes of Hafiz, accompanied by the *kamouncha*, and in a chorus by the tamborins.

'After this concert, some parts of which were extremely noisy and some not unpleasant even to our ears, appeared from behind a curtain a dirty-looking negro, dressed as a *fakeer* or beggar, with an artificial hump, and with his face painted white. This character related facetious stories, threw himself into droll attitudes, and sung humorous songs. Amongst other things he was a mimic; and, when he undertook to ridicule the inhabitants of Ispahan, he put our Shiraz audience into ecstacies of delight and laughter. He imitated the drawling manner of speaking, and the sort of nonchalance so characteristic of the Ispahaunees. The people of Shiraz, (who regard themselves as the prime of Persians, and their language as the most pure, and their pronunciation as the most correct,) are never so well amused as when the people and the dialect of Ispahan are ridiculed. Those of Ispahan, on the other hand, boast, and with much reason, of their superior cleverness and learning, though with these advantages indeed they are said to mix roguery and low cunning. The exhibition finished by the singing of a boy, the most renowned of the vocal performers at Shiraz, and one of the Prince's own band. His powers were great, descending from the very highest to the very lowest notes; and the tremulations of his voice, in which the great acme of his art appeared to consist, were continued so long and so violently, that his face was convulsed with pain and exertion. In order to aid the modulations, he kept a piece of paper in his hand, with which he did not cease to fan his mouth.'

The following passage relative to their paintings is taken from the author's account of the famous palace of the *Chehel Sitoon*, or "forty pillars," at Ispahan:

'From this saloon an arched recess (in the same manner studded with glass, and embellished here and there with portraits of favourites) leads into an extensive and princely hall. Here the ceiling is arranged in a variety of domes and figures, and is painted and gilded with a taste and elegance worthy of the first and most civilized of nations. Its finely proportioned walls are embellished by six large paintings: three

three on one side and three on the other. In the centre of that opposite to the entrance is painted Shah Ismael, in an exploit much renowned in Persian story; when in the great battle with Soliman, Emperor of the Turks, he cuts the Janisary Aga in two before the Sultan. On the right of this, surrounded by his dancing women, musicians, and grandees, is Shah Abbas the Great, seated at a banquet, and offering a cup of wine to another king, whom he is entertaining at his side. The wine, indeed, seems to have flowed in plenty, for one of the party is stretched on the floor in the last stage of drunkenness. The painting to the left is Shah Thamas, in another banquet scene. Opposite to the battle between Shah Ismael and Sultan Soliman, is that of Nadir Shah and Sultan Mahmoud of India. On the left of this is Shah Abbas the Younger, who also is occupied with the pleasures of the table; and on the right is Shah Ismael again, in an engagement with the Usbeck Tartars. These paintings, though designed without the smallest knowledge of perspective, though the figures are in general ill-proportioned, and in attitudes aukward and unnatural, are yet enlivened by a spirit and character so truly illustrative of the manners and habits of the nations which are represented, that I should have thought them an invaluable addition to my collection, if I could have had time to have made copies of them. When it is remembered, that the artist neither could have had the advantages of academical studies, nor the opportunities of improving his taste and knowledge by the galleries of the great in Europe, or conversed with masters in the art, his works would be allowed to possess a very considerable share of merit, and to be strong instances of the genius of the people. The colours with which they are executed retain their original freshness; at least if they have faded they must have been such in their first state, as we have not seen in Europe. The gilding, which is every where intermixed, either to explain the richness of the dress, or the quality of the utensils, is of a brilliancy perhaps never surpassed.

'They possess less questionably an excellence, to which the merit of colouring is at any rate very subordinate. They mark strongly and faithfully the manners of their subject, and combine in a series of pleasing and accurate records a variety of details, of feature, attitude, dress, dancing, musical instruments, table furniture, arms, and horse accoutrements of the country. Shah Abbas, in the painting to the right, has no beard. The fashions have altered with the times, and the present king cherishes a beard which descends lower than his girdle, and touches the ground when he sits. The notoriety of Shah Abbas in the revels of the table, and particularly his love of wine, are here displayed in characters so strong, that they cannot be mistaken: and so little did he endeavour to conceal his propensities, that he is here painted in the very act of drinking. The faces of the women are very pleasing, but their wanton looks and lascivious attitudes easily explain their professions.'

Mr. M. scarcely touches on the literature of the Persians; and in course he says but little of their proficiency, which has been so highly celebrated, in the most important of all the fine arts,

arts, poetry. In fact, however, the praises of which their poetry has been made the subject have been but partially deserved; and it is as far from yielding satisfaction to a truly cultivated taste as their music and painting. The vigour of early and inventive genius is discovered, but unrestrained by the guidance of a correct judgment, and totally regardless of the bounds of nature and the analogy of human experience.

The love of jugglery, legerdemain, rope-dancing, and other bodily feats which are calculated to excite surprise, is so strong a passion among a rude people, and so uniformly discovered among them, as to constitute a distinctive feature of an early stage of civilization; and such an epoch is consequently in general remarkable for the dexterity and skill of its jugglers. Thus the Chinese and Hindoos now possess, and the antient Mexicans and Peruvians formerly possessed, the most adroit performers in this species of art. The Persian practitioners are here described in the following terms:

'The rope-dancer performed some feats, which really did credit to his profession. He first walked over his rope with his balancing pole, then vaulted on high; he ascended the rope to a tree in an angle of forty-five degrees: but, as he was reaching the very extremity of the upper range of the angle, he could proceed no further, and remained in an uncertain position for the space of two minutes. He afterwards tied his hands to a rope-ladder of three large steps; and, first balancing his body by the middle on the main line, let fall the ladder and himself, and was only brought up by the strength of his wrists thus fastened to their support. He next put on a pair of high-heeled shoes, and paraded about again; then put his feet into two saucepans, and walked backwards and forwards. After this he suspended himself by his feet from the rope, and, taking a gun, deliberately loaded and primed it, and, in that pendant position, took an aim at an egg (placed on the ground beneath him) and put his ball through it. After this he carried on his back a child, whom he contrived to suspend, with his own body besides, from the rope, and thence placed in safety on the ground. His feats were numerous; and, as he was mounted on a rope much more elevated than those on which such exploits are displayed in England, they were also proportionably dangerous. A trip would have been his inevitable destruction. He was dressed in a fantastical jacket, and wore a pair of breeches of crimson satin, something like those of Europeans. The boys danced, or rather paced the ground, snapping their fingers to keep time with the music, jingling their small brass castanets, and uttering extraordinary cries. To us all this was tiresome, but to the Persians it appeared very clever. One of the boys having exerted himself in various difficult leaps, at last took two *kunjurs* or daggers, one in each hand; and with these, springing forwards, and placing their points in the ground, turned himself head over heels between them; and again, in a second display, turned himself over with a drawn sword in his mouth.

'A negro

'A negro appeared on the side of a basin of water (in which three fountains were already playing), and, by a singular faculty which he possessed of secreting liquids, managed to make himself a sort of fourth fountain, by spouting water from his mouth. We closely observed him: he drank two basins and a quarter of water, each holding about four quarts, and he was five minutes spouting them out. Next came an eater of fire: this man brought a large dish full of charcoal, which he placed deliberately before him, and then, taking up the pieces, conveyed them bit by bit successively into his mouth, and threw them out again when the fire was extinguished. He then took a piece, from which he continued to blow the most brilliant sparks for more than half an hour. The trick consists in putting in the mouth some cotton dipped in the oil of Naphtha, on which the pieces of charcoal are laid and from which they derive the strength of their fire: now the flame of this combustible is known to be little calid. Another man put into his mouth two balls alternately, which burnt with a brilliant flame, and which also were soaked in the same fluid.

'The music was of the roughest kind. The performers were seated in a row round the basin of water; the band consisted of two men, who played the *kamouncha*, a species of violin; four, who beat the tamborin; one, who thrummed the guitar; one, who played on the spoons; and two who sung. The loudest in the concert were the songsters, who, when they applied the whole force of their lungs, drowned every other instrument. The man with the spoons seemed to me the most ingenious and least discordant of the whole band. He placed two wooden spoons in a neat and peculiar manner betwixt the fingers of his left hand, whilst he beat them with another spoon in his right.

'All this continued till the twilight had fairly expired; when there commenced a display of fire-works on a larger scale than any that I recollect to have seen in Europe. In the first place, the director of the works caused to be thrown into the fountain before us a variety of fires, which were fixed on square flat boards, and which, bursting into the most splendid streams and stars of flame, seemed to put the water in one entire blaze. He then threw up some beautiful blue lights, and finished the whole by discharging immense vollies of rockets which had been fixed in stands, each of twenty rockets, in different parts of the garden, and particularly on the summits of the walls. Each stand exploded at once; and at one time the greater part of all the rockets were in the air at the same moment, and produced an effect grand beyond the powers of description.'

With the descriptive matter of this book of travels, the author does not very frequently adventure opinions on any subject which is out of the common tract; and the reserve seems to be prudent, since his occasional aberrations from this line are seldom fortunate. Thus, on the subject of bullion, though he informs us that the most perfect freedom prevails both in the exportation and the importation of the precious metals; that 'every man may convert his bullion to any use; and

and if he wishes to have it coined, may send it to the mint to be struck into any piece of money, paying the value of a pea's weight of gold for every *tomaun*;' yet he thus reasons on the supposed treasures of the King:

'The King's treasure is reported, probably with much truth, to be immense. The Persians, indeed, affirm, that all the money which is received into the royal coffers, remains there and never again gets into circulation. In a country so poor as Persia, in which there are so few people of any capital, the absorption of a million, or a much smaller sum, would be immediately felt. If, therefore, all the sums, which are annually poured into the King's treasure had remained a dead stock in his hands, there would not now have been a single piece of gold in Persia. There is no corresponding influx of bullion. Persia exports yearly three hundred and fifty thousand *tomauns* in specie to India; to meet this drain there is indeed an inadequate supply from their trade with Russia, which purchases with gold all the silk of Ghilan; and again with Turkey, which pays in gold for all the shawls and the little silk which it exports from Persia.'

The right inferences here lie so near the surface, that it is surprising to see them so egregiously missed by a man of the good sense which Mr. Morier possesses, however little he may be trained to philosophical thought. Could he not have reflected that, if any part of the circulating medium was withdrawn from the business of circulation, by confinement in the King's coffers, it would necessarily raise the value of that which remained in circulation, and consequently would afford an inducement to every man who had bullion to convert it into coin? If it were still withdrawn till bullion itself became scarce, the value of bullion would consequently be increased, and it would be the interest of somebody to import it. The nature of commodities, in general, wherever ingress and egress are free, is to leave the country in which they are cheap, and pass to that in which they are dear. The precious metals, of which the expence of carriage is small in proportion to their value, always follow this course, on comparatively minute variations; and whatever might be the quantity of gold and silver shut up in the King's coffers, the country would not stand deficient of one ounce of those metals which the state of its commodities and of its circulating medium might require. It is idle to tell us of no corresponding influx of bullion. There is no influx of air when no absorption takes place: but, if we produce the absorption, we may depend on the influx: or, if we produce on the other hand an accumulation, we may with equal certainty depend on an efflux. With regard to the treasure in the coffers of the King of Persia, instead of supposing it, with Mr. Mo-

Mr. Morier, to be immense, we are perfectly satisfied that it is little or nothing: but we make this conclusion on reasons very different from those which lead Mr. Morier to reject its perpetual accumulation: our assurance arises from a knowlege of the difficulty of collecting such a treasure in Persia, and the facility of spending it; of the perpetual existence of such reports, and the perpetual discovery of their falsehood.

In confining our report of this volume to those features of it which more immediately form the national portraiture of Persia, we have been obliged to pass over a great number of minute and incidental circumstances which much contribute to its variety and its interest. On the subject of monuments of antient history and remains of antient art, to which Mr. Morier occasionally attends with laudable diligence and curiosity, (as particularly at Persepolis and Shapour,) our boundaries now compel us to be silent; and the same cause restricts us from gratifying our readers with the author's biographical account (p. 220—223.) of Mirza Abul Hassan, the late Persian envoy to our court, whom he accompanied to England, and who excited much attention while in this country. The anecdotes also relative to this personage, during his passage to Europe, which Mr. M. has inserted in the 'Conclusion,' are amusing and informing. We recommend the remark of one of his attendants, on seeing the Waltz danced at a ball given by the English ambassador at Constantinople, to the consideration of all lovers of that now fashionable *whirl*:—"*Pray*," said he, "*does any thing ensue after all this?*"

A number of plates greatly enrich and satisfactorily illustrate this work.

Art. II. *Catalogue de la Collection Minéralogique du Comte de Bournon*, &c.; *i. e.* A Catalogue of the Mineralogical Collection of the Count de Bournon, Fellow of the Royal and Linnéan Societies of London, Member of the Geological Society in the same city, of the Wernerian of Edinburgh, and of several of the Academies of Sciences in France; drawn up by himself, and containing many Observations and interesting Facts not hitherto detailed, &c. To which is annexed an Answer to the Abbé Haüy's Memoir on the Simplicity of the Laws to which the Structure of Crystals is subjected, &c. 8vo. pp. 680. With a folio Volume of Plates. 1l. 1s. Boards. De Conchy. 1813.

As the Count de Bournon's communications, on all matters connected with his favourite study, are characterized by a rare union of accuracy and originality, we had confidently anticipated much unalloyed gratification from a perusal of the present performance. The preliminary discourse, however,

which is penned with all the eloquence of acute feeling, has thrown a gloom over the exquisite mental repast which the author has prepared for his readers: since we learn from it that the noble collection, which had been assiduously accumulated during eighteen years of care, anxiety, and perseverance, is now offered for sale; and its learned and ingenious proprietor bids a mournful adieu to that science which had formed one of the principal charms of his existence, and had softened with its benign influence the visitations of misfortune. The statements, with which he has deemed it proper to accompany this afflicting intelligence, are of a very painful description: but, as far as they are intended to affect the reputation of a distinguished individual, they fall not within the sphere of our critical cognizance. Besides, the allegations to which we allude are those of the offended party only, and therefore cannot be fairly received as a full and genuine record of the matters of fact. By this reflection, we are very far from insinuating the most remote tendency to represent circumstances otherwise than they were supposed to have really taken place: but it is, we think, extremely probable that both the Count and the eminent person of whose proceedings he complains may, from want of mutual and candid explanation, have laboured under prejudice and misconception. At all events, the former will readily excuse us from pronouncing an opinion in affairs of so much delicacy, on *ex parte* evidence. We owe it, moreover, to ourselves and to the public, to allot as much room as we can conveniently afford to notices of some of the more interesting portions of his valuable cabinet.

'This collection is composed of more than 22,000 specimens, of which above 10,000 are insulated crystals. It is included in 225 drawers, each divided into compartments or cases, in which the specimens are placed on a layer of cotton. Many of these drawers, selected from among the largest, contain 130 or more of these compartments. The insulated crystals, when small, are placed on a support of green wax, which admits of their being examined with ease, and without risk of their being lost. In each case, they are separated from the layer of cotton by a small paper-box. In various instances, when the specimens are small, or when there are many similar crystals, a single case includes a considerable quantity of them.

'I have said that the specimens in this collection are small; and, in fact, those which form its basis are of very inconsiderable dimensions, though perfectly defined. Upwards of 3000, however, without being of any extraordinary size, would make a conspicuous figure in any collection. Few are the substances of which the appropriate series does not involve, either in crystals or in the other varieties, facts not hitherto quoted; and with respect to many, the new facts, those especially of a crystallographic description, amount to

to a very considerable number. Some of these series are astonishingly rich; such, for example, among the stones, are those which belong to the carbonet of lime, arragonite, the fluate and sulphate of lime, the sulphate and carbonate of barytes, the carbonate of strontian, quartz, corundum, and those which relate to the oriental gem, spinell, most of the gems, pyroxene, mica, &c.; and, among the metals, those which refer to native and red silver, the sulphuret and muriate of that metal, and to almost all the kinds of copper, iron, tin, and lead ores, &c. Corundum, including every thing relative to the eastern gem, alone presents an immense collection; which is at the same time very precious, and probably could not again be formed. I believe that I am even warranted to assert that a freedom of choice, in all the collections of Europe, would be altogether inadequate to the institution of such another; and I am very confidently persuaded that, unless a person were conveyed to the different places in which nature herself might present the facility of selection, he would resort in vain to the combined resources of all the dealers in stones and jewellers of Ceylon, and of the peninsula of India. The astonishing riches which my collection contains in this substance, and in the spinell, the series of whose crystals is also unique, I owe to one of those fortunate circumstances to which chance alone can give birth, and which science ought to improve with so much the more activity, nay even eagerness, because the recurrence of the case is not to be expected.'

The Catalogue, though very summary with regard to many particulars, conveys detailed information relative to the more remarkable substances, with occasional notices of the author's ingenious investigations. To have conducted it on a more extensive scale would have required a greater sacrifice of time and expence than was compatible with the exigencies of his situation. — The whole collection appears to have been formed and arranged chiefly with a view to illustrate the crystallography of the several species: a department of the science in which the Count has long and successfully laboured, although his results are occasionally at variance with those of the celebrated Haüy. In the event of his collection passing into the hands of an individual, or of any corporate society worthy of possessing it, he takes leave particularly to recommend the following objects as the most deserving of study and research:

'1. The crystalline department of the oriental gem. It contains a very considerable number of forms of which I was ignorant when I published my memoir on the subject in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, many of them very interesting, and not to be traced in any other collection. 2. Red silver. The series of crystals of this substance is immense, and very probably unique: its varieties of forms excite a singular degree of interest, on account of the striking relation which they present between the modifications of its primitive rhomboid, and that of the carbonate of lime. 3. Native

 metallic

metallic copper, of which this collection comprizes a very numerous series of crystals, most of them presenting a very peculiar aspect, apparently quite remote from the form of their primitive crystal. The forms of these crystals may, in short, be reckoned among the most interesting in the whole range of crystallography. 4. Every thing relative to lead, of which this collection possesses, in all the species, very considerable suites of crystals, the greatest number of which have not been described. To the collection is annexed a series of wooden models of 1200 crystals, presenting 1415 varieties of form, as several of them exhibit a different variety at each of their extremities. These crystals, which were made by myself, are of a very hard wood; they are executed with much care, and preserve the angles of the substance to which they belong.'

The author's account of his specimens of stones and metals is more minute, and more interspersed with critical observations, than his notices of the other divisions of his cabinet: but, whatever may be the fate of his accumulated stores, his printed catalogue will descend to posterity as a lasting memorial of genius, zeal, and perseverance. In our present report, we can merely glance at a few of its most prominent contents.

The Count de Bournon's elaborate treatise on the Carbonate of Lime evidently bespeaks his familiar acquaintance with a most extensive diversity of specimens in that department; and we find, accordingly, that his samples of this substance amount to 3160, of which 1890 are detached crystals: besides a very considerable series, illustrative of the author's ideas on the growth of shells and pearls; upwards of 300 large pieces, which cannot be reduced without rendering them useless; and some apparently anomalous crystals, from the Feroe Isles, which are particularly described in a note. The Arragonite series is extremely rich and precious, consisting of 134 articles, 100 of which are separate crystals. The fluate of lime comprizes 334 pieces in all, 212 of which are insulated crystals. Among these fluates, is an *Entrochus* from Derbyshire, about ten lines in diameter; which, throughout its length, is half in the state of lamellated carbonate of lime, with the organic texture perfectly preserved, and half in the state of purple fluor. Among the varieties which illustrate the phosphorescence of this substance, some exhibit the phænomenon in water heated to near the point of ebullition. A green variety from Siberia, when pounded, and thrown on a shovel, heated to the first approach to redness, displays a beautiful phosphorescent light, of green, yellow, and violet. Other mixtures of coloured flames are produced by other varieties.

Among 74 specimens of Apatite, some are very rare, and a considerable number of the varieties are undescribed. — Of Bardiglione and Gypsum, the series is rich and precious; and the same

same remark applies to the sulphates and carbonates of barytes and strontian, with the whole family of quartz, chalcedony, and most of the siliceous species; particularly those of corundum, (of which the collection contains 1444 specimens,) spinell, and topaz. — Under the denomination of *Garnet*, are included as varieties not only the precious and common, but the pyrope, colophanite, topazolite, melanite, &c., an arrangement of which the propriety would perhaps require some farther investigation. Among the rarer substances belonging to this class, we find 16 specimens of aplome, 8 of pyrophysalite, 3 of pyenite, 10 of Haüyne, 13 of dichroïte, 19 of Humite, 7 of fibrolite, 6 of Indianite, 6 of zoizite, 148 of sahlite, a species which the author proves to be perfectly distinct from augite, delineating at considerable length the primitive and derivative forms of its crystals. Various samples are also quoted of spodumene, anthophyllite, yenite, scapolite, fahlunite, gabronite, allochroïte, natrolite, sodalite, &c. &c. In his observations on lepidolite, the Count assigns very satisfactory reasons for its non-identity with mica. Iron, he observes, appears to be essential to the constitution of the latter: but neither iron nor manganese, according to the analysis of Klaproth, seems to be requisite in the constitution of lepidolite. Mica is fusible, but with difficulty, under the blowpipe, and yields a glass more or less inclined to brown or black; whereas the flame has scarcely touched lepidolite, when it melts with ebullition into a perfectly colourless glass. Its primitive form likewise differs from that of mica. — An article too long for transcription, but involving some new and important views, is given on mica itself; and the collection of specimens belonging to this substance amounts to 471, 183 of which are detached crystals.

The volcanic specimens, 475 in number, chiefly refer to some of the questions which have been most keenly agitated between the advocates of the Plutonian and the Neptunian theories:

'I would here,' says the author, 'be permitted to make an observation to which I am prompted by the interest that I feel for the progress of science. How is it possible that M. Werner, the extent of whose knowlege, and the ability with which he has rendered it useful, have elevated him throughout Germany to the rank of the principal legislator of mineralogy, by giving at the same time the sanction of a law to his decisions at the very moment when he saw mineralogists, who were calculated to inspire some confidence, object to his excluding many substances from the number of those of volcanic origin, and grounding their objections on facts exhibited by the volcanoes themselves, either those extinguished at unknown and more or less remote epochs, or those in actual combustion:—how, I say, is it possible that he could cherish no desire of adding to his amazing knowlege that of the

effects produced by these grand and powerful phænomena of nature How is it that he has not come forwards to study them in their sanctuaries, and thus acquire the right of refuting, with appropriate weapons, all opposition to his exclusions; or tearing out with his own hands the leaves of the system which contain them? Thus would he have completed the large measure of obligation, which his labours have conferred on mineralogy.'

Although, on most occasions, we are much inclined to concur in the Count's opinions and reasonings, we cannot greatly applaud his anxiety to retain the Scotch appellation of *whin*; which is purely provincial, and of such vague application as to be predicated of almost any stone that possesses more than usual hardness. He no doubt restricts it to a series of rocks which, if we rightly comprehend his meaning, includes basalt at one extremity, and coarse-grained green-stone at the other: but this is a limitation of the ordinary use of the term, and, after all, tends little to the purposes of precision.

The Inflammable Substances are arranged under sulphur, amber, mellite, mineral pitch and asphaltus, elastic bitumen, lignite, coal, authracite, plumbago, and pieces intended to illustrate a sort of shrinking experienced by coal and bituminous schistus. Under each title, the number of specimens is announced: but these substances, like the salts, which are next introduced, are very shortly passed in review. Some of the samples in both these departments are, however, extremely rare. Of *Glauberite* we find not fewer than 26 specimens:

'This salt, which exists quite formed by nature, has been observed within these very few years by M. Brongniart, who has given its description and analysis in No. 133. of the Journal of Mines. It is obtained from Oscagna, in New Castille, in Spain, where it is included in the heart of rock-salt, from which it is very easily detached into separate crystals by breaking the pieces. Among those that belong to this cabinet, many completely reveal the direction of their primitive planes.

'M. Brongniart, after having observed that glauberite is not a salt with a double base, reports, according to the analysis which he made of its composition, 0.49 of sulphate of lime, and 0.51 of sulphate of soda, both deprived of water. Thus, as the Abbé Haüy very properly remarks, since we are ignorant of the crystalline form of the sulphate of soda deprived of water, we cannot be certain that glauberite does not belong to this salt, mixed with simple or waterless sulphate of lime. Here, however, I would beg leave to ask of M. Brongniart, why this salt may not be the result of a triple combination of sulphuric acid, soda, and lime? I am aware that many chemists do not believe in triple combinations: but I confess that I cannot easily conceive their reasons.'

Several of the Saline Crystals which are here enumerated have been procured artificially; and of several, also, the primitive form has been either ascertained or approximated.

The description of the metallic portion of the cabinet, with the accompanying observations, occupies 270 pages. In front are ranked 90 specimens of native gold, some of which exhibit small groupes of crystals; and a single detached crystal presents a beautiful and very rare variety, namely, a regular tetraëdron, having each of its sharp angles replaced by two planes, and each of its solid angles by three.

The next article is Platina in grain, both from Peru and Brazil; that which came from the latter country affording some puzzling cases of crystallization. From the platina-sand have been extracted some small grains and one minute plate of palladium, rhodium in the reguline state, and six insulated crystals of united iridium and osmium, also in the metallic state. In reference to this last-mentioned substance, the Count was desirous of ascertaining by experiment whether it were really insusceptible of malleability, as commonly alleged. With this view, he placed several grains on a small block of steel, and struck them forcibly with a hammer: when the blow, without breaking them, flattened and extended them; and, which is very remarkable, they thus contracted such a strong adherence to the steel, that it is no longer possible to separate them from it.

A series of 121 specimens of Native Silver is particularly valuable, on account of the variety and perfection of their forms; besides that some of them are of very rare occurrence. In several of the small samples from Kongsberg, in Norway, all the ramifications of native silver are so many aggregates of minute cubes. In other instances, this metal presents elegant exhibitions of fern leaves, regular octaëdrons, large hexaëdral plates, &c. The more rare modifications of silver ore, contained in this repository, are antimonial silver, antimonial and arsenical combined, the sulphuret and flexible sulphuret of silver and copper, and the fragile sulphuret, (*spröde glassertz* of Werner,) which is generally regarded by the French mineralogists as a simple variety of red silver that has undergone alteration.

'This mineral, which is very rare, is doubtless unknown to them; otherwise, they would assuredly have preserved it among the most perfectly distinct species of this metal. It is, nevertheless, true that most of the German mineralogists appear to me to confound, with the crystals of fragile vitreous silver, other crystals which very manifestly belong to red silver, and even sometimes to the altered sulphuret of silver; a circumstance that may have contributed to the error which they have committed in cancelling the substance in question from the list of mineral species.'

The sulphuret of silver and copper made part of a precious package which was transmitted from Petersburgh, by Dr. Crich-

ton, first physician to the Emperor of Russia. It was found in the mines of Culivan in Siberia, is extremely fragile, and very fusible under the blow-pipe.

In the list of Quick-silver specimens, we observe 14 of the native metal, 2 of native amalgam, 131 of cinnabar, and 16 of muriate of mercury.

The Copper series is among the richest that we recollect to have seen quoted; for, of 239 specimens of the native metal, 82 are insulated crystals, and many of them are of singular beauty and rarity. Those of the sulphurets amount to 138; of the double sulphuret of copper and iron, to 100; of grey copper ore, to 106; of copper pyrites, to 86; of the green carbonate of copper, to 120; of copper azure, to 222; besides a great variety of the arseniates and oxyds of the same metal, &c. which are particularly detailed. The yellow sulphuret of copper and iron, though composed of the same principles and nearly of the same proportions as the grey, is uniformly distinguished by its colour; a difference so striking as of itself to suffice for a permanent discrimination of species.

'I long ago advanced, (says the Count,) for the first time, that I supposed this difference might proceed from the state in which the iron is present in each of them. In the yellow sulphuret of copper and iron, it appears to me to be in the metallic state, as it exists in martial pyrites, whereas it is in the state of oxyd in the grey sulphuret of copper and iron. With what satisfaction have I observed M. Gueniveau supporting, and even demonstrating, this very opinion, by his skilful analyses of the yellow sulphurets of copper and iron, of St. Bel, near Lyons, and of Baigorry! One of his analyses yielded to him 30.2 of copper, 32.3 of metallic iron, and 37 of sulphur; and the second, 30.5 of copper, 33 of iron in the metallic state, and 35 of sulphur.

'The existence of iron in the metallic state being once recognized in the yellow sulphuret of copper and iron, while it is in the state of oxyd in the grey sulphuret of copper and iron, the composing substances of these two ores cease to be the same; and their difference, as species, is strongly pronounced. A difficulty concerning them, however, remains to be explained; for, if the two substances are different, why do they present the same primitive form? Our knowlege in crystallography is not yet, I apprehend, sufficiently advanced to enable us to answer this question, so as completely to resolve the doubt. I shall only mention that the characteristic form of mineral substances does not exclusively reside in the primitive form of the crystal, but likewise, and principally, in that of the integrant molecules which concur in the composition of that crystal. Many integrant molecules of different forms may contribute, by their union, to the production of primitive forms perfectly similar: thus it is that, in forms of more easy dissection than the tetraëdron, such as the cube, we may arrive at their construction by a great number of molecules of different shapes. Under the article diamond, we have

been constrained to acknowlege that the true form of the integrant molecules of the octaëdron, and of the tetraëdron, is still unknown to us; so that we have been led to admit, for that of the integrant molecule of the octaëdron, the tetraëdron; and for that of the latter, the tetraëdron itself. It might, I think, be very easily demonstrated that these two forms cannot be those of the integrant molecules of these two solids: but it is by no means so easy to arrive at the knowlege of the true form o these molecules. This determination is, I conceive, a task which remains to be executed; and, until it is accomplished, our crystallographic information will continue incomplete: but what is the science of which all the parts are perfect? Let us honestly avow our ignorance; and, with it, the impossibility of our answering at present, in a satisfactory manner, the question which I have just proposed.'

The sulphurets of Copper and Antimony, of which the Count possesses eight specimens, and which are noticed for the first time, are derived from the mine of Bojojawletusk, near Katherinburg, in Siberia. It bears a considerable resemblance to the grey sulphuret of copper and iron, but differs from it essentially in the total absence of the last-mentioned metal; Dr. Wollaston having detected in its composition only copper, antimony, and sulphur.

Under the title of Blue Copper, will be found some important remarks on the differences which exist between the native and artificial crystals of that substance. — A fine suite of 91 specimens of the black oxyd of copper has enabled the author to describe that species in a much more ample manner than any preceding mineralogist had attempted.

The Iron genus is also richly illustrated by the voluminous contents of this valuable catalogue; the numerical items of this department being 13 specimens of native metal, (atmospheric,) 107 of the oxydulated or magnetic sort, 192 of the specular, 107 of that specimen oxydized to the maximum, 120 of the hydro-oxydized, 30 of the piciformly oxydized, 107 of the arsenical, 580 of different modifications and states of the sulphuret, 16 of the phosphate, 1 of Turquoise, 6 of the chromate, 52 of the arseniate, 12 of the sulphate, 34 of the sparry, and a few anomalous pieces.

Count de B.'s exposition of the most highly oxydized specimens of iron is enriched by many original and interesting observations, which we cannot stay to report. The columnar variety is asserted to be the effect of retreat or shrinking: but why may it not be ascribed to a rude crystallization? The crystallized varieties of the hydro-oxyd of iron are very rare, and have been little noticed. We therefore gladly make room for the following intimation:

'The district which, as far as I know, has hitherto furnished the finest specimens, and those containing the best characterized crystals of hydro-

hydro-oxyd of iron, is the neighbourhood of Bristol. There we meet with quartzoze geodes, the inner surfaces lined with crystals of quartz, on which are sometimes disseminated very minute though perfectly defined crystals of hydro-oxyd of iron, but always in small quantities, and frequently included even in the heart of the quartz crystals. Although these geodes always contain crystals of quartz in their interior, it sometimes happens that their outer crust, instead of being quartzose, is itself hydro-oxyd; in which case, the iron is manifest in diverging fibres round a common centre, and forms within the geode small mamillæ, on the surface of which these fibres frequently separate from one another, so as to reveal their crystallized form. The crystals belonging to this iron are always very minute, very much lengthened, and very slender. Their forms appear to be all deducible from the elongated cube, or the rectangular parallelopepidon; so that, as we have already seen in the preceding species, the prism here seems rather to supply the place of the straight rectangular parallelopepidon than that of the cube.'

On the Piciform-oxyd, likewise, we have some novel observations. Though it certainly resembles the vitreous black oxyd of Haüy, it does not, like that substance, become magnetic by heat; nor does it scratch glass; and its aspect approaches more to that of pitch or bitumen, than to that of glass. Neither does it seem to possess any of the characters of the black iron of Werner; which is more properly the hematiform oxyd of manganese, a substance which is always more or less mixed with the oxyd of iron. The primitive form of this new species is either a cube or a rectangular parallelopepidon, very nearly approaching to a cube. Its colour varies from a deep black, to blackish, and brown. Its faces have a shining lustre. When not crystallized, it may be very readily mistaken for asphaltus. Its fracture is conchoidal; and its specific gravity, which varies in different specimens, has not been found to exceed 40.00. Under the blow-pipe, it diminishes in bulk, and changes, without any indication of fusion, into a light scoriaceous matter, which exercises no action on the magnetic needle. With borax, it yields a glass of a dirty yellow. Some of its varieties very readily decompose into a powder, of different degrees of yellow: but both this substance and the sulphate of the hydro-oxyd of iron, which is also described, require to be more completely investigated.

The sulphurets of iron, and especially their crystalline forms, many of which have not been before described, are here ranged under six sections; according as they belong to the smooth or the striated cube, to the regular octaëdron, to the prismatic rhomboid, to the undetermined forms, or as they happen to be effected by decomposition. Under each of these heads, will be found many excellent observations.

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The assortment of the Arseniates is thus described:

'This series is very beautiful and very precious, on account of the selection of the specimens. We may here observe, in respect of colour, different shades, from deep grass-green to light green, as well as yellowish, and from reddish-brown to yellowish resin-red. Among the pieces of this last description, is one in which all the edges of the cube, the primitive crystal of this substance, are replaced by a linear plane, equally inclined on those that are adjacent; a variety of which I was ignorant, when I described this substance, for the first time, in the Philosophical Transactions for the year 1801.

'Moreover, in this suite, is included a very interesting series of specimens, in which the cubes of arseniated iron are decomposed without losing their form, and have passed to the state of a reddish-brown, and slightly yellowish oxyd of iron: this variety is extremely rare.

'Another piece likewise occurs, also very rare, in which the arseniate of iron forms a cellular mass, of a brown-red, mixed with small mamillæ of sulphureted copper and iron, and of minute particles of metallic copper.'

Under the article Tin, we are presented with 13 specimens of the metallic variety, 311 of the oxyd, 52 of the hematiform oxyd, and 12 of the sulphuret.

The Lead consists of a solitary specimen of the native metal, 193 of the sulphuret, or galena, 500 of the carbonate, 24 of the rhomboidal carbonate, 185 of the phosphate, 1 of the arseniate, 246 of the molybdate, 117 of the chromate, 357 of the sulphate, 3 of the murio-carbonate, and 4 of the red oxyd, or native minium.

'The existence of native lead has not been hitherto observed in a manner at all approaching to certainty, except by M. Rathke, in the island of Madeira; where that learned Dane is said to have found, in pieces of tender lava of that island, small contorted masses of lead perfectly in the metallic state. Although we should admit this fact as conclusive of the existence of native lead, it is too much impressed with the character of an accidental product, not to make the mineralogist desirous of a still more incontestible proof of the phænomenon.

'The characters of the specimen here deposited being calculated to remove all suspicion of an artificial origin, no doubt, I think, should any longer remain respecting the natural existence of metallic lead; which will, nevertheless, always continue to be regarded as one of the rarest substances in mineralogy.

'This specimen, of which the size is nearly that of a small orange, but without possessing its roundness, is a very compact lamellar galena; with laminæ, of moderate extent, which intersect one another in different directions. This galena has the aspect and lustre of the ordinary sort, and at first sight would create no suspicion of the native metallic lead. Yet, if we judge from its weight, which is considerably greater than that of common galena, the dose of metallic lead which it affords must be far from insignificant. This lead is contained

contained in the very substance of the galena, in perfectly distinct particles, easily discernible with a lens, and which are sometimes multiplied to such a degree that the portion of galena including them may be cut with a knife, as if it were wholly in the state of metallic lead. Under the stroke of the hammer, this galena is flattened nearly in the same manner as pure metallic lead; and, on examining with the lens the part that has been struck, we perceive that the sulphureted portion of its substance has been reduced to a black powder, which mostly remains included in the very substance of the flattened lead, and obscures its lustre. It is not without the greatest difficulty that we can effect, by the hammer, the separation of some fragments of this specimen.

'The value of this mass of galena is still enhanced by the circumstance of a part of its surface being invested with the red oxyd of lead, or minium, under the form of small mamillæ, which betray a slight transparency on their edges. Some parts of this same minium are contained even in the substance of the galena. The metallic state of the lead has, I presume, much contributed to the production of this red oxyd.

'I am ignorant of the locality of this precious morsel, and for the possession of it I am indebted merely to one of those fortunate accidents with which I have been frequently favoured; such as, in like manner, will always occur to every mineralogist, who is disposed to seek them without intermission, and not to allow them to escape. This specimen was placed among a considerable number of others, of very moderate pretensions, and the dealer was as completely ignorant of its locality as of its value! It is very often among pieces thus unknown, and frequently thrown among refuse, that I have found the most uncommon and the most interesting samples.'

Among the rarer sulphurets of lead, is mentioned a series from Siberia, presenting small-grained galena, contained in a white transparent substance, which phosphoresces if even rubbed with a tooth-pick.

The suite of Carbonates of Lead in this collection is in all probability unrivalled, whether we consider its numbers, the variety of its non-descript forms, or the specialties of interesting facts connected with its illustration: but any analysis of these particulars, howsoever abridged, would carry us far beyond our accustomed boundaries. A solitary specimen of the arsenite came from St. Prix, in Burgundy, where it is found in the fibrous capillary form, and of a pale yellow hue. — The Molybdates offer 197 detached crystals, among which are many undescribed forms. — The Murio-carbonate, which can no longer be procured from its Derbyshire repository, the mine having been submerged, has acquired a high value from this accidental circumstance; as well as from its extremely pleasing and elegant aspect. The characters and forms of this very rare species are here traced with great precision.

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The Zinc specimens comprize 186 of the sulphuret, or blend, 6 of the oxyd, 130 of the quartzose oxyd, or calamine, and 83 of the carbonate. The sulphurets are particularly rich in non-descript forms, and some of them are remarkable for their compact, mamillated, and stalactitical appearance. The samples of the oxyd were transmitted by Dr. Bruce, Professor of Mineralogy in the University of New York. They are so nearly pure, and so different from calamine in specific gravity, in the absence of quartz, and in other properties, that the Count considers them as belonging to distinct species. With regard to the crystalline forms of calamine, the Abbé Haüy appears to have determined them from a very limited range of varieties; a defect which the present series is well calculated to supply, by exhibiting a diversity of modifications. A very small specimen from Siberia is of a fine sky-blue.

Bismuth. This series exhibits 44 specimens of the native metal, 7 of the sulphuret, 13 of the *nadel-erz* of the Germans, (which is a triple sulphuret of bismuth, lead, and copper,) and 6 of the oxyd.

Of Cobalt, the ores consist of 50 of the grey, 106 of the arsenical, 17 of the arseniate, and the same number of the oxyd, with 5 specimens of a more doubtful description.

Under Nickel, are ranged three specimens of the native metal, 35 of the arsenical, and 7 of the oxyd. The first belong to the capillary variety, for the knowlege of which we are indebted to Klaproth; because, previously to his analysis, it was regarded as a variety of capillary martial pyrites. The small fibres, when strongly magnified, appear to be very elongated rectangular parallelopepidons. Three of the pieces of the oxyd are distinguished by a very fine meadow-green, varying with yellowish and whitish green.

'One of these pieces, in particular, is extremely rare, and hitherto even unique, as far as it exhibits very marked indications of a crystallized form; whence we may infer that this substance is a regular hexaëdral prism. On this piece are observable three small crystals, which are depressed at their extremities, and evince a tendency to the pyramidal form, as is known to take place with regard to some varieties of the phosphate of lead. This series also contains a very beautiful morsel of the variety of this substance from Kozemutz, which has been denominated *Pimelite*.'

Arsenic includes 24 specimens of that metal, in the native state, 8 of the yellow sulphuret, or orpiment, 45 of the red sulphuret, or realgar, and 1 of the oxyd.

Manganese presents us with 187 specimens of the oxyd, 24 of the lithoidal modification, 4 of the sulphuret, and 6 of the phosphate. The epithet *lithoidal* is avowedly borrowed from

from Brongniart, and merely indicates the stony nature of this ore, of which the genuine constitution remains to be ascertained.

Six samples of native Antimony occur, all from Allemond, in the Alps of Dauphiny; 2 of the arsenical, 151 of the sulphuret, 23 of the sulphureted oxyd, (red antimony,) 13 of the oxyd, and 54 of *Bournonite*, or *Endellione* (a triple sulphuret of antimony, lead, and copper). Under the sulphurets, we find an admirable exposition of their crystalline forms, a subject very imperfectly treated by the Abbé Haüy himself: — but the article which, in this division, will afford the highest gratification to the professional mineralogist, is the supplementary account of the substance which Professor Jameson named in honour of the present author, who first described it in the Philosophical Transactions for 1804. Unfortunately, on this as on various other occasions, we can merely refer the curious to the original text and plates.

We hasten to notice, in our rapid sketch, 12 specimens of oxydulated Uranium, and 38 of the oxyd of that metal, or Uranite, with 20 of the sulphuret of Molybdenum, and 9 of its oxyd. These last mentioned are thus introduced to our acquaintance:

'The only author, as far as I recollect, who has hitherto spoken of this substance, is M. Karsten, (*Mineralogische tabellen*,) who alleges that it comes from Sweden. That specimen which belongs to this set, in which it forms a series of 6 pieces, has probably the same locality. I am indebted for some of these to my respectable friend, Dr. Crichton, first physician to the Emperor of Russia, who sent them to me from St. Petersburgh, without knowing their native repository. I have since met with the other pieces in London: but the dealer, who was ignorant of their nature, was not better informed with respect to their original situation. This substance invests them in the form of a lemon-yellow powder, and occurs in the small cavities of a brown granular quartz; containing, moreover, small particles of the sulphuret of molybdenum, disseminated within it.

'The other three pieces are, I believe, unique, being sulphuret of molybdenum, unaccompanied with its matrix; and displaying on their surface some portions of a pale green, and sometimes a slightly whitish substance. These specimens, when broken, discover in their interior small cavities which are filled with the same substance, and also of a pale green, sometimes whitish, and sometimes of a darker green. This substance much resembles that of a whitish green; but the green colour is increased by exposure to the air attached to the spoon, when the molybdenum is evaporated under the action of the blow-pipe, and appears to be a green oxyd of that metal. These are the only specimens which I ever observed, but I have not been able to learn their locality.'

To the samples of Titanium in this collection, belong 38 of the oxyd, 22 of the siliceo-calcareous, (*nigrine*,) and 23 of

of anatase. Those of Craitonite, which are here classed in the same category, have been since ascertained to consist of a predominant quantity of zircon, silica, iron, and manganese; and they ought, therefore, to be referred to the stony substances, and placed immediately after zircon.—The series which belongs to anatase, a substance first observed by the author in the Alps of Dauphiny, in 1782, deserves to be particularly noted, on account of the rarity of such specimens. Those of Craitonite occur still more rarely, and generally accompanied by anatase. The discovery of this substance, which is also due to the Count de Bournon, dates from 1788.

Of the martial Scheelin, or Wolfram, we perceive 36 specimens; and of the calcareous, or Tungstein, 11. The varieties of tellurium are distributed into 8 specimens of the native metal, 21 of the lamellar, (*Naggiag-ertz* of Werner,) 20 of the grey, and 29 of the graphic. Also 6 specimens of cerite, 4 of Allanite, 2 of yttriferous oxyd of tantalium, and 7 of the oxyd of chromium; besides 70 detached pieces, connected with the metals, but placed out of their order, on account of their great size. Many of these particulars, which we have barely recited, might furnish room for much curious discussion: but it is now time that we should bring this article to a close, with all possible dispatch. For the same reason, and also because we have not at present the requisite documents within our reach, we forbear from entering on the consideration of those points concerning which the author and the Abbé Haüy have not been able to arrive at a common understanding. The Count's strictures on M. Tonnellier's report of his treatise on the carbonate of lime appear to us to be founded in justice: but, not having the report itself before us, we state our opinion with much diffidence.

We ought, perhaps, to apologize to our readers for having already detained them so long with numbers and names: but we were desirous of conveying to the British public some idea of the multiplied items of a collection which, we fondly flatter ourselves, will not be lost to this country, nor frittered down and dissipated in fragments. The present Catalogue, which forms its most valuable accompaniment, has strong claims on our favourable notice; since it is evidently the production of a master-hand, and may on various occasions be profitably consulted as a text-book on mineralogy. The composition and press-work certainly call for revision; but this remark is not unmingled with feelings of commiseration and indulgence, on account of those distressing circumstances which are so unfriendly to correct writing, and which have reduced

reduced the author to the cruel necessity of renouncing his precious stores and the favourite pursuits of his life.

The plates, which are twenty-one in number, exhibit distinct outlines of the figures of 413 crystals of various minerals.

Intending purchasers will have an opportunity of visiting the collection, by giving the Count one day's previous notice.

ART. III. *Clavis Calendaria; or a compendious Analysis of the Calendar;* illustrated with Ecclesiastical, Historical, and Classical Anecdotes. By John Brady. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. about 370. in each Vol. 1l. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

SOME years ago, we were accustomed to meet with publications intitled "Companions to the Almanack." These supplements to the Calendar being now probably discontinued, Mr. Brady has undertaken to supply the deficiency on a much more extended and amusing plan; uniting to the usual explanations an account of every saint and every circumstance noticed in the holiday-columns of the Almanack; and ushering in the whole by a brief introduction, in which we are presented with a sort of history of the several inventions for measuring time, (viz. the dial, the *clepsydra*, the hour-glass, the clock, and the watch,) of the alterations which the Calendar (or Kalendar) has undergone, of the structure of almanacks, of the divisions of time into years, months, days, &c., and of the origin of the names of the twelve months of the year and the seven days of the week.

We are informed in the preface that this work has been 'the result of long and arduous application;' and the author hopes, 'from the scrupulous and vigilant attention which he has bestowed to attain correctness,' that he has succeeded. We wish that we could compliment him on this head: but we are under the necessity of remarking that, notwithstanding Mr. B.'s desire of being accurate, he has fallen into some errors; and that, in spite of his long and vigilant study of his subject, he has not furnished a complete *Clavis Calendaria.* On the Fasts, Festivals, &c. marked in the holiday-column of the Almanack, he has indeed afforded us something that is more amusing than the pages of good Mr. Nelson: but, as an astronomer, chronologist, and antiquary, Mr. B. is not extensively informed. Many of our ecclesiastical festivals and regulations being founded on the institutions and mode of dividing time which prevailed among the antient Hebrews, more notice ought to have been taken of the Jewish Calendar; and if Mr. B. had

even

even adverted to the hints given in the Old Testament respecting the period at which the year antiently began, he would not have asserted (p. 31.) that the autumnal equinox is a period for the commencement of the year 'universally acknowleged to be inconsistent with reason, and the long established phenomena of nature.' Had he considered the Jewish mode of reckoning time, he would have found that their civil year began in the month *Tizri*, with the equinoxial new moon, in autumn; and the Hebrew Scriptures justify the opinion that this commencement of the year is more antient than that which is adopted in the sacred or ecclesiastical year, which began at the vernal equinox, in the month *Nisan*. It is stated, Exod. xxiii. 16., that "the feast of in-gathering, or the harvest-feast, fell at the end of the year;" which is a convincing proof that the year in the time of Moses opened at this season.

The knowlege of astronomy and of the sciences connected with it was derived to us from the Arabians; and this source is still indicated by the words *Algebra* and *Almanack*, which are compounded from the Arabic language. We think, therefore, that Mr. B. should not doubt whether the latter word was derived from Arabic or the Saxon; and that he should not incline to the account of Verstegan, who deduces it from the Saxon name given to their carved sticks, which they used as calendars of the changes of the moon, and which they called *al-mon-aght*. The particle *al*, prefixed to *geber* and *manach*, surely ascertains the Arabic origin of the two words just mentioned.

Mr. B. regards the word September as a compound of *septem*, seven, and *imber*, a shower of rain, that month being considered as the commencement of the rainy season: but, as November and December have a similar termination, he might have questioned the accuracy of this remark. At p. 50. we read that 'Sir Isaac Newton has determined the solar year to consist of 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, and 15 seconds; and it is agreeable to this calculation that we now regulate our measure of time.' Mr. Brady has not referred us to the place where he found this calculation: but it certainly is not followed in the modern measure of the length of the year, which is now invariably made to consist of 365 d. 5 h. 48 m. 57 s.

Some persons will probably smile at Mr. B. when he gravely undertakes to fix the length of the *Honey-moon* 'to a period of 30 days.' He is, however, right in his statement of the origin of the phrase, which is assignable to our Saxon ancestors; who were accustomed to drink a favourite beverage, composed of honey, (or rather made from honey, probably *mead*,) for thirty days after every wedding. The account of the *Harvest-moon*, which follows, is sadly defective; the author merely observing

'that it denotes the month in which the *harvest is usually collected*:' but he makes no remark on the properties of this moon, which, owing to the obliquity of her orbit at that period to the horizon, varies little in the time of her rising for several nights together immediately after the full. The harvest-moon is generally the full moon in August; and the following full moon, in September, having the same properties in a less degree, is termed the *Hunter's Moon.*

The correction of the calendar by Pope Gregory XIII., called the *New Style*, is well explained; and while Mr. B. applauds the good sense of the general adoption of it in Europe, he has not forgotten to remark 'that the Russians, regardless of propriety, still adhere to the Julian style, and therefore are now 12 days before us in their date of time.' As we are becoming intimate with the Russians, we may be the means of leading them to correct this error. — To the Roman names of the *months*, are subjoined the corresponding Saxon appellations, which are now obsolete, though we still retain in constant use the names given by our rude ancestors to the seven days of the week. After having told the reader that the Saxons called January *Wolf-monat*, or Wolf-month, because of the peculiar danger which in this season the people incurred of being devoured by wolves, who were then most ravenous; and that, subsequently, when Christianity began to raise its head, this month was called *Aefter-yula*, that is, *After-Christmas*; the author adds:

'For what reason we abandoned the Saxon title of this, and of the other months, but retained the Saxon names of the days, it is difficult to conjecture; but as the former were each expressive of the period of the year in which they were respectively placed, and the latter merely the names of the idols worshipped on those particular days, there does not appear to have been much judgment exerted in the rejection of the one, and the retention of the other.'

Under the head of *Monday*, or *Moon-day*, which was sacred to the moon, Mr. B. remarks that

'The worship that has been paid to the moon as a deity originated from the causes assigned to that of the sun; but in Europe all direct adoration of those orbs has long since been exploded, although traces of its having been once prevalent yet remain. In some parts of England it is customary to bless the new moon, while in Scotland they not only do so, but usually drop a courtsey at the same time; and formerly the influence of the moon was considered so very extraordinary, that few persons would kill their hogs but when the planet was on the increase; nor would any one scarcely dare to cut the corns on his feet, or to pare his nails, at any other period.'

If it be worth while to notice these fragments of superstition, for the sake of the rising generation, they should be treated with appropriate ridicule.

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The first chapter of that part of the work which is devoted to the elucidation of the holidays marked in the Calendar is intitled *Circumcision.* (1st January). Here Mr. B. assumes the character of the theologian; informing us that 'this festival was instituted by the Church, in grateful remembrance of our Lord having on the eighth day of his nativity, first shed his sacred blood for the redemption of our fallen nature:' but he does not refer us to the passage of the New Testament which attributes any part of our redemption to the blood of Christ shed at his circumcision.—From religious doctrine, the writer passes to modern customs, and observes:

'The antient, friendly, and benevolent custom of *wishing a happy new year*, is so generally exploded, that a person must be blessed with the favors of fortune, or well known as a man of talent, to venture his consequence by now offering so familiar an address: few, therefore, above the lowest classes of society, attempt to intrude any good wishes for the happiness or success of his neighbour; lest, if he escape the imputation of unlicensed freedom, he be deemed vulgar, and ignorant of what is called *fashionable life.* Even the modern expression of the *compliments of the season*, which, for many years, was substituted for the former more expressive and better understood mode of salutation, has given way before universal refinement, real or affected; and is now sanctioned only in family circles, among intimate friends, or from a person who is either an acknowledged superior, or at least upon equality with the one whom he addresses. In like manner, *new-year's-gifts* have fallen into such disuse, that they are scarcely known except in some trifling instances, where such marks of affection are offered to children just emerging from the nursery. That nothing contributes more to virtue than cheerful and friendly intercourse, has often been pointed out by the best moral writers: surely, therefore, every reflecting mind must lament, that any cause should operate to interrupt the diffusion of any part of the concord and harmony acknowledged to be so requisite for the comfort and happiness of all classes of society.'

Something *hearty*, as we say, and characteristic of the social qualities of our ancestors, is attached to these customs, and we should lament if cold-blooded fashion be allowed to banish expressions and practices which indicate kindness and good will. May Englishmen long continue to enjoy "a merry Christmas," and commence every new year with benevolent hearts towards their neighbours!

As it is mentioned in the title of this work that anecdotes are interwoven with the necessary explanations, we shall take this opportunity of giving a specimen of them under the head of *New-year's Gifts.* It is possible, that on the pretext of sending such a gift, Judges might be assailed with presents which it would be dishonourable in them to accept; and an instance of this kind is related:

'When Mrs. Croaker had obtained a decree in Chancery against Lord Arundel, she availed herself of the *first new-year's-day* after her success to present to Sir Thomas More, then the Lord Chancellor, a pair of gloves, containing forty pounds in angels, as a token of her gatitude; the gloves, he received with satisfaction; these could not, perhaps, as the offering of the heart, be refused, but the gold he peremptorily, though politely, returned: "It would be against good manners to forsake a gentlewoman's new-year's gift," said that eminent man, "and I accept the gloves; their lining you will be pleased *otherwise* to bestow." Of presents of gloves, many other instances might be adduced, some with *linings*, as Sir Thomas termed his proffered compliment, some without; and probably we may from thence account for the term "*glove-money*," to be found in old records, as well as the expression still in use of "*giving a pair of gloves.*"

In the section intitled *King Charles the Martyr*, (Jan. 30.) Mr. Brady says, 'what became of the remains of the unfortunate Charles has never been satisfactorily explained:' but, since this passage was penned, the place of his interment has been ascertained beyond the possibility of doubt. (See Rev. for July last, p. 333.)

Regularly to follow this compiler through the holiday-columns of the Calendar, and to notice all the days which are marked in honour of holy men and angels or to commemorate religious or political events, would carry us far beyond the limits which we can assign to this article. It must suffice to say that Mr. B. omits no history or legend of any saint that occurs in his course; that the origin of the usages and ceremonies observed (particularly in the northern counties) on certain days, and the names by which they are designated, are explained; and that such historical anecdotes are incidentally introduced as are deemed pertinent. To these are added an account of the *Terms* kept in our Universities and Inns of Court; of the Institution of our Orders of Knighthood, as of the Garter, &c.; of the Introduction of Hackney-Coaches; of Relics of the blasphemous Titles formerly assumed by the Popes; of the Coronation-ceremonies and Regalia, and the Armorial Bearings of the Sovereign as marshalled at the Union in 1800; of the Form of Service at the Healing of the King's Evil; of the Pedigree of George the Third; of Ordeals; of the Titles of the first Magistrate of the City of London, &c.

The work is, in our opinion, unnecessarily swelled with the legendary tales of saints; and though Mr. Brady often treats them with a sneer, and occasionally expresses his surprise that the names of some of these reputed (we should say imaginary) saints are retained in our reformed Calendar, he sometimes betrays a species of credulity which is not usual with men of information

information in the present day. Thus, (Vol. i. p. 328.) speaking of the Invention or Discovery of the Cross by Helena, the mother of Constantine the Great, he observes that 'the greatest sceptic may join in belief of the verity of the discovery of this instrument of the passion of our Lord;' and in Vol. ii. p. 191. he gravely relates that 'St. Paul appointed St. Denys, or Dionysius, to be Bishop of Athens, a station which he filled with the most zealous piety until he became a martyr.' It must be owned, however, that the author introduces much amusing matter into his pages; and that, in his notices of political red-letter-days, he has endeavoured to make his readers acquainted with the history of our country.—Much notice is taken, under the head of the Feast of the Nativity, of the antient jollity and gambols which in times of yore prevailed at that riotous season. We have also an account of the origin of the Christmas-box, of the Mummers of the Wassail-bowl, of the Peg-tankards, and of Yuul Dough, which are mentioned in old writers, and to some of which we still find allusions in our vulgar sayings. Perhaps the following elucidations will not be unacceptable to the general reader; and they will serve farther to shew the nature of this work, which is designed to throw light on the character and manners of our remote ancestors:

'The Saxons were remarkable for immoderate drinking, and when intoxicated with their favourite ale were guilty of the most outrageous violences. Dunstan endeavoured to check this vicious habit, but durst not totally obstruct their much-loved intemperance: he introduced, therefore, an ingenious custom of marking or Pegging their Cups at certain distances, to prevent one man taking a greater draught than his companions, which, for a time, lessened the evil, though it proved in the end productive of much greater excesses than were before indulged in: prior to that regulation some of their parties used to avoid drinking to intoxication, but when they were obliged to drink to the pegs, they no longer had a choice, but were generally the sooner overcome; for, refining upon Dunstan's plan, each was obliged to drink *precisely* to a pin, whether he could sustain a quantity of liquor equal to others or not: and to that end it became a rule that whether they exceeded, or fell short of the prescribed bumper, they were alike compelled to drink again until they reached the next mark. In the year 1102 the priests, who had not been backward in joining and encouraging these drunken assemblies, were ordered to avoid such abominations, and wholly to *discontinue* the practice of "drinking to pegs." Some of these Peg or Pin Cups, or Bowls, and Pin or Peg Tankards, are yet to be found in the cabinets of antiquaries; and we are to trace from their use, some common terms yet current among us. When a person is much elated, we say he "is in a merry pin," which no doubt originally meant he had reached that mark which had deprived him of his usual sedateness and sobriety: we talk of taking a man "a peg lower,"

when we imply we shall check him in any forwardness, a saying which originated from a regulation that deprived all those of their turn of drinking, *or of their peg*, who had become troublesome in their liquor: from the like rule of society came also the expression of "he is a peg too low," *i. e.* has been restrained too far, when we say that a person is not in equal spirits with his company; while we also remark of an individual that he is getting on "peg by peg," or, in other words, he is taking greater freedoms than he ought to do, which formerly meant he was either drinking out of his turn, or, contrary to express regulation, did not confine himself to his proper portion or *peg*, but drank on to the *next*, thereby taking a double quantity.'*

We have noticed some errors, which we shall mention, that they may be corrected in a second edition†. At Vol. i. p. 269. we are told that *Pascha* is derived from a Hebrew word denoting a *passage*: but it more properly expresses a *passing by*, or *leaping over*. In Vol. ii. for the Hebrew word ראש rosch, signifying *a head*, is printed רנש. At p. 63. we read that 'Elizabeth was delivered of a son, in the year of the world 4000, being about six months before the birth of the Redeemer:' but Usher, Blair, and all the best chronologists, place the birth of Christ in the year of the creation 4004. At p. 129. Mr. Brady applies to St. Bartholomew the words which Christ addressed to Nathaniel; and at p. 227. mention is made of only one Epistle of St. Clemens to the Romans: but, if Mr. B. had turned to Cotelerius, he would have found two; though the second is imperfect.

On the whole, however, this work is creditable to the industry of the compiler; and, as an illustration of the holiday-columns of our almanack, it may be very useful.

ART. IV. *Letters from the Mediterranean;* containing a civil and political Account of Sicily, Tripoly, Tunis, and Malta: with Biographical Sketches, Anecdotes, and Observations, illustrative of the present State of those Countries, and their relative Situation with respect to the British Empire. By E. Blaquiere, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 1112. 1l. 8s. Boards. Colburn. 1813.

THE exclusion of our travelling countrymen from the interior of the continent of Europe has had the effect of greatly multiplying their reports of Greece, Sicily, and the minor objects of curiosity in the Mediterranean. In the cases of Mr. Leckie, Mr. Vaughan, Dr. Clarke, and Mr. Galt, we have noticed a part of those productions, and we are now required to pay attention to another work of considerable compass and merit.

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* See also a more brief account of *Peg*-tankards, by Dr. *Pegge*, Rev. Vol. lxiii. N. S. p. 308.

† We have some notion, but are not certain, that a second edition has already appeared.

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The first volume is confined to Sicily, and embraces a more miscellaneous range of particulars than are commonly introduced into a book of travels. The author made it his business, he says, to collect information personally among the Sicilians, as well as to direct his researches to the publications of native writers. He begins by a geographical account of the island, and then describes successively the city of Palermo, the northern coast to the eastward of that capital, Messina, Catania, the southern coast as far as Girgenti, and round to Palermo again: after which he makes some observations on the interior, and on the small islands in the neighbourhood of Sicily. He next proceeds to render a report of the state of religion, the nature of the government, and the manners of the inhabitants. Chapters (or, as he terms them, letters) are subsequently devoted to the present condition of literature, agriculture, commerce, finance, and military force; and he concludes by an historical sketch of the principal events which have occurred in Sicily and Naples, since the changes produced by the French Revolution.

Mr. B.'s second volume is divided into three parts, which treat respectively of Tripoli, Tunis, and Malta. With regard to Tripoli, he flatters himself that his observations will possess the attraction of novelty, that country being hitherto undescribed, except in a superficial way in books of geography. His researches, he assures us, are the result of assiduous personal inquiry, and, if not so comprehensive as he might wish, are strictly accordant with veracity. As to Tunis, he pays a compliment to the accuracy of Mr. Macgill's recent small work *, but considers the field as still open, because that gentleman restricted himself to the capital and its vicinity. — Malta, though frequently described, still appeared to him to stand in need of a writer who would explain attentively the state of its civil and political relations.

We begin our abstract with *Sicily*. — In passing an unfavourable sentence on the manners of the Sicilians, Mr. Blaquiere lays the blame very justly on their form of government, and on the baneful operation of their church-system. The majority of our countrymen who have visited Sicily are in the habit of pouring out censure on the natives, without a due consideration of the causes of their degeneracy from the fair picture of the ages of antiquity. The Sicilians of the present day are not fitted to undergo much fatigue, and have a decided predilection for a life of inactivity; nor are they free from the more serious charges of habitual vindictiveness and low artifice.

* See Rev. for July, 1812.

Their troops are to be trusted only when they have officers of a different country at their head: three years have now elapsed, since they have been partially trained under British officers; and their conduct on board the flotilla employed tor the defence of Messina has given a satisfactory earnest of what may be expected from them. It deserves to be kept in mind that, backward as is the state of literature in the island, the inhabitants discover no deficiency of natural understanding.—With all his disposition to make allowances, however, Mr. B. does not undertake to vindicate the conduct of the Sicilian ladies: but he ascribes it to its true causes, viz. the selfish plan of marriage-contracts, the example of previous depravity in the husband, and, above all, the pestilential practice of auricular confession.—Nothing can be more defective than the Sicilian mode of educating young men of family. The *eyes*, or tutors, are valued merely for their disposition to humour the caprice of the pupil and his mother; and an explanation of the lives of the Saints enters much more into the object of his labours as a teacher, than a communication of the beauties of the classics. At the age of eighteen, the young man is withdrawn from habits of application, and allowed to launch into the follies of fashionable life, which consist in gambling, dealing in horses, and intriguing. The daughters of persons in good circumstances are placed, at the age of six, in a *retiro*, or house for female education, where they are taught to read, but not always to write; it being a fact, says Mr. B., that several fair ladies in Sicily, of princely rank, would be puzzled to *write their own names*. In these retiros, great pains are taken to fill their minds with notions of extravagant bigotry, and even to persuade them to embrace a monastic life. When the parents intend them for the married state, a companion is generally selected from the family of some relation or friend; and the young female is led from a convent to the altar, as if a knowlege of domestic management were a preliminary wholly superfluous. This course of education, and the previous unacquaintance of the parties, can scarcely fail to lead to the existtence of differences and mutual disgust, which pave the way for deviations from the only line of conduct that can render women respectable or happy.

Duelling is tolerated by the Sicilian law, but the Judges have very little trouble in discouraging it; since, in that island, it is common to give and receive, with impunity, insults of a nature which in England would amount to the exclusion of the parties from respectable society.

'Amongst the nobles, night is converted into day; their time is regulated in the following manner: about ten in the morning, chocolate

colate is brought to the Sicilian votary of fashion in bed, after which he falls asleep till twelve, when he rises, and either visits the promenade, takes a ride, or lounges to the *Caffe de' Nobile*, noblemen's coffee-house; at three he sits down to his macaroni, and immediately after dinner returns to his bed, where he continues till six, when, rising, he again visits the promenade, and forms the necessary assignation with his mistress; then bounds to the opera, or some private *conversazione*. A suite of rooms are attached to the Carolina, for the reception of those who wish to play Faro: these are invariably preferred to the opera, and always crowded at an early hour, when about one hundred people, men and women, sit down round a large table, and continue playing until two in the morning, when they return to supper, and keep it up till after four; ladies of the first rank only attend the Carolina conversazione, and numbers, both young and old, are seen at it nightly. There is no person in Sicily who does not gamble, for it is one of those customs which the most reserved and prudent character never thinks of avoiding; so general has this ruinous disposition become all over the island. At Messina there is a prince whose palace is literally converted into a gambling house, and open every night in the year, Sundays not excepted, for the reception of his countrymen, and British officers, many of whom have been ruined by their perseverance in, and attachment to, play in that town.

'The general treatment of servants in Sicily, particularly those in the higher circles, is another proof of how much want of principle there is amongst them. These unfortunate people are kept up night and day, and are only allowed about one shilling per diem; they are, moreover, very seldom paid, and innumerable instances of ill treatment towards them are in circulation at Palermo.'

We find Mr. B. expressing himself with considerable severity (Vol. i. p. 199.) on the selfish conduct of the Sicilian clergy. They appear, he says, 'altogether to have forgotten the example of our Saviour and the apostles;' and, in utter contempt of the injunction to regard things of this world as stale and unprofitable, they have absorbed, in religious foundations, not less than *a third* of the whole landed property of the island. The farms belonging to them are let on short leases of three or four years; which, in other words, is making it the interest of the tenant to exhaust the land with all imaginable industry. The revenues of the bishoprics are ample, and several abbeys even yield an annual rent of two or three thousand pounds sterling. These are in the King's patronage, and are conferred of course on ecclesiastics who chance to be in favour at court. The influence of the clergy, high and low, on the different ranks of the community, is such as would startle the unbelieving Protestant. Mr. Blaquiere states that the bishops, by communicating the wishes of the church, or of the government, to the subordinate preachers, are enabled to effect, in the course of a single week,

week, a very considerable change in the state of popular feeling. Auricular confession is maintained as a principal engine in the support of this sweeping ascendancy; and the credulous flocks are taught to look up to the clergy as empowered to absolve them from crimes, at the slender sacrifice of a few prayers, a few fasts, and a pecuniary forfeit. In this country, we have difficulty in believing that any people, above the scale of barbarism, can contemplate with favour a practice which has the effect of directly encouraging a repetition of crime, and of making sin emanate from the authority of religion: yet all ranks of society in Sicily hasten to the auricular chairs; and, having disclosed their iniquities and undergone the slight penance prescribed, they proceed to run over again the course which they have so lately professed to abjure.

Mr. Blaquiere is much less courteous towards the royal family of Sicily than Mr. Thomson, whose account of the island will be the subject of a future article: but he refrains from including (p. 456.) the King and Queen in his biographical comments; on the plea that the veneration of subjects for their sovereign ought not to be shaken during the life of the ruler. This silence, however, is neither salutary nor complimentary; and it would not be observed by writers, nor desired by sovereigns, if a deviation from it could be with truth rendered panegyrical of the latter. In another chapter, when relating the treachery exercised in 1799 towards the unfortunate insurgents against royal authority at Naples, the author confirms the tale of horror already communicated to the public by other writers. In describing, also, (p. 361. *et seq.*) the wretched state of agriculture in Sicily, he corroborates all Mr. Leckie's complaints of the oppression of the baronial system. A Sicilian land-holder scarcely ever visits his estates, and is contented to consign the management of them to a steward; who retains in store an extensive stock of corn, the product of the preceding harvests. This corn has been forestalled on different occasions, according to his views of emolument for his patron, and is sold from time to time, either wholesale or retail, to the highest bidder. The tenants are kept in the most abject dependence, by the necessity of purchasing their seed-corn from the steward, and they are even obliged to negotiate with him for ploughs and oxen to turn up the ground; so that it often happens, in consequence of the avarice or caprice of these unworthy representatives, that a delay of several weeks is incurred in ploughing or sowing the corn-lands. Few of the peasantry being *allowed to keep cows*, their families must be subsisted on goats and poultry. Their corn grows unprotected by inclosures; and no sooner is it cut and deposited in the granaries, than officers go round to enforce the

the *Revello*, an ordinance obliging every person to declare the exact amount of his crop, and prohibiting him from selling any part of it until the pleasure of the high tribunal, called the *Real Patrimonio*, be known. After the reports from all parts of the island have been collected, the tribunal in question determines the quantity required for home-consumption, and fixes an arbitrary price on it. The land-holder, meanwhile, takes care to enforce the payment, in kind, of his rent and advances: after which come the tax-gatherers, who, by a perverse application of all principle, are directed to levy duties on the necessaries of life, such as flour, oil, wine, slaughtered cattle, &c. These taxes fall directly on the lower orders: as may be said indeed of the Revello, which the higher ranks contrive to evade by the timely interposition of a bribe; and they are thus enabled to hoard up their corn, which they retail at an advanced price, after having spread throughout the island a general alarm of scarcity. The peasant, on taking a sack of corn to the mill, is obliged to pay a fresh tax for grinding; and no kind of food can be said to be exempt from impost. Year after year passes over the poor man's head in this unhappy state, and has at last the effect of rendering him callous and hopeless. Many tracts of land, formerly populous, now exhibit the aspect of desolation; and the traveller, in proceeding through the interior of Sicily, observes houses unroofed, bridges broken down, villages abandoned, and numbers of males and females without employment.

The author inserts (p. 380.) an extract from an official return of the quantity of wheat and barley which was sown in Sicily in the year 1807: whence it appears that, throughout an island which extends to five millions of acres, not more than 350,000 quarters of both kinds of grain were committed to the earth. "It is now twenty years," says an attentive observer, "since I have devoted the utmost attention to this subject, and there does not appear to have been the least alteration in the quantity." What else, we may ask, can be expected in a country swarming with titled families, too proud to follow a course of industry, and too poor to live in idleness? — a country in which a third of the whole landed property is said (p. 222.) to be vested in five or six families. — The administration of justice is altogether on a par with the distribution of property. An accused person is kept in prison on the most vague and indecisive testimony; while, on the other hand, convicted criminals are allowed to remain, during successive years, without enforcement of the sentence passed on them. The secret object of these irregularities is to extract the utmost sum of money out of the hands of the parties in confinement; and

and accusers, lawyers, and even Judges, all become parties to these nefarious proceedings. Among individuals, the usual method of gratifying private revenge is to shoot from an ambush at the person in question, while he is walking or riding in the country; and this practice is so common as to bear a fixed price, the wretches who undertake to commit such acts being ready at command for the sum of twenty dollars!

Much popular preaching takes place in Sicily. In addition to the regular priests of the churches, a number of itinerant monks wander about the country, for the purpose of delivering pious discourses and making pecuniary collections. These persons are accustomed to preach in Italian, a language altogether strange to the Sicilian peasantry; and, in order to render it still more unintelligible, they are in the habit of interlarding their sermons with Latin phrases. Many of them affect to be inspired, and endued with the gift of prophecy; while others declare themselves to be troubled with visions.

'A Dominican, (says Mr. B.) whom I met at Milazzo, was of the latter description, and among several other frightful apparitions which he had seen, told me the following curious circumstance that had occurred to him in the course of his visionary speculations.

'Taking a solitary walk one evening on the promontory upon which that town is built, and looking towards Mount Strombolo, he saw a man walk out of the crater, in whom he immediately recognized Henry VIII., who began to run down the mountain with the utmost precipitation. The monarch's flight was, however, of short duration, as in a few minutes no less a personage than the Devil made his appearance, and looking round, soon perceived the fugitive, upon which he ran towards him; and getting up with his Majesty, a violent scuffle ensued, which of course ended in Henry's discomfiture, and he was shortly conducted in triumph to the place of his former abode by the implacable Belzebub.'

Enough of this wretched picture! — Leaving also the *Politics* of Sicily, of which Mr. Blaquiere gives some curious particulars, we proceed now to *Tripoli, Tunis, and Malta,* the objects of his second volume: in which we have the mortification to find that the very unfavourable character given of the Tunisians by Mr. Macgill is fully confirmed by this writer, and extended to their Moorish brethren of Tripoli. Vindictiveness, avarice, and deceit, all enter into the revolting catalogue of their national vices; and perhaps no people on earth display a stronger and more general inclination to depravity. The origin of this disgusting state of things is decidedly referred by Mr. B. to the vitiating operation of a cruel and despotic government. The Bashaw and his ministers are in the habit of endeavouring to carry their point with Europeans by dint of menace, as they do with their own subjects; while the middling orders openly

pride themselves on practising imposition on the credulity of strangers. 'There is,' says Mr. B., 'no species of artifice which a Moor will not attempt; no lies or imposture to which he has not recourse when dealing with foreigners.' Yet, such is the promptitude with which justice is administered, that the number of crimes committed among the inhabitants towards each other is comparatively small.

'An individual is no sooner detected in the commission of any crime, than he is seized, and instantly brought to the Kaya, who investigates the alleged charges upon evidence; and, if it is a point of difficulty, refers the matter to his Highness the Bashaw, otherwise immediate punishment follows conviction. The above-named officer sits and hears causes for a certain number of hours every day. The Bashaw also presides in his Hall of Justice according to the pressure of business and number of causes to be tried; every man pleads his own cause; and the meanest subject, when called upon to defend himself, is permitted to speak with a degree of freedom which would shock the feelings of an European sovereign.

'The bastinado is usually inflicted from one hundred to a thousand stripes, for all minor crimes; and imprisonments seldom exceed two or three months, so that no man's labour is lost to the community. Thefts are punished in a very exemplary and curious manner; the malefactor's right hand and left foot are taken off, and suspended for several days in a place of public resort. Executions are not allowed to be performed by Mahometans; but a sufficient number of Jews are generally obliged by the Moorish soldiers to perform those offices: they are done in a way peculiar to this country; for the culprit being conveyed to the side of a high wall, a rope is fastened round his neck, and thrown over to the other side, where the Jews are in readiness, when they seize it and run the criminal up without seeing him. Strangling is never inflicted in public; that method of execution is reserved for the disaffected and those who excite the Bashaw's hatred.'

The Tripolitans can by no means boast of being strict observers of the injunctions of their prophet, with regard to abstinence from strong liquors. In another point, however, that of the plurality of wives, they are seldom known to exceed the European limit. Like other ignorant tribes, they are full of national vanity, and not only despise modern improvements, but gravely account themselves superior to the people of Europe; and in this flattering notion they are confirmed by their government, which has no wish to countenance innovations of any kind.

'The Bashaw, therefore, rejects every thing in the shape of foreign invention, and promulgates a belief that it would be contrary to the Prophet's will, if the people adopted the modes of other nations. As to their literature, it is confined to a knowledge of the Koran, and a few eastern tales, beyond which they never aspire. The arts of design and perspective, together with every other species of refinement, except what is absolutely necessary for the simplest wants of nature, are

are unknown. Medicine and surgery are the only sciences which they have brought to what they consider a degree of the highest perfection; something relative to the method of curing diseases will, therefore, very properly come in here.

'The number of physicians throughout the regency is not equal to what we have in the London hospital; and such is the uninterrupted health enjoyed by all classes of the community, that these have but little practice. Their fees seldom exceed sixpence; even operations are performed for a shilling! — Nothing is internally administered to patients except herbs of different kinds; regimen is the great resource during sickness. The surgical instruments would doubtless excite the curiosity of our faculty; they consist of a few irons of different sizes, with figures marked on the ends: these are applied to various parts of the body, as the nature of diseases requires. — There are no public hospitals; and cripples, or people of a deformed appearance, are never seen in public.'—

'The sports and amusements practised here are of the most simple description. Athletic exercises, such as wrestling, are peculiar to the lower class; those of a higher condition are devoted to a life of indolence in general. Gambling is a vice almost unknown, although chess and a game called mangolo occupy a considerable portion of those who frequent coffee-houses: in their quarrels with each other, they seldom have recourse to blows; a violent dispute usually finishes every disagreement. The Jews are extremely litigious amongst themselves, but neither distinguished for their activity or bravery.'

For the Christian religion, they have the thorough contempt which is common among Mohammedans, yet they treat all our religious ceremonies with the utmost respect. The Jews, also, are allowed the free exercise of their form of worship.

When treating of Tunis and the adjacent territory, the author expatiates (p. 170. *et seq.*) with much enthusiasm on the site of Carthage. In the event of an European army landing on those shores, that spot, he says, would be a most favourable place for the disembarkation. It is very healthy, contains materials for throwing up military works, and has, from position, particular advantages in keeping up a communication with the sea. Mr. B. enlarges with equal warmth on the medicinal quality of the mineral spring and baths of Hamam Leef, which are on the declivity of a mountain close to the sea, in the southern extremity of the bay of Tunis. These waters are useful in rheumatic and many chronic disorders, and the beauty of the situation has a favourable operation on the minds of invalids. The Tunisians, like their Tripolitan neighbours, are in general strangers to bad health; their mode of life being abstemious, and their climate in general excellent. The present Bey is nearly sixty years of age, and has ruled the country for half that period, a circumstance almost without example in this region of sedition and assassination. He appears to be well

fitted for governing barbarians, being indefatigable in his attention to public business, and rigid in the administration of justice: but these qualities are disfigured by very gross vices; avarice, cruelty, and sensuality, all forming striking characteristics in his portrait.

Passing from Tunis to Malta, Mr. Blaquiere enters on statistical details, and computes the population of that island and of Gozo at 93,000: of which the half are supposed to reside in the city of Valetta. That capital is said to contain above 20,000 foreigners. Citta Vecchio, the antient capital, is agreeably situated in the interior of the island, but thinly inhabited. When seen from a distance, Malta presents the appearance of a plain surface, its highest parts not being more than four hundred yards above the level of the sea. The inland villages are well built, and have several fine churches: but no such thing as picturesque beauty can be found.

'The soil is formed of a reddish loamy mould, and although it has seldom more than from ten to sixteen inches depth, there are no productions of Europe or of the tropical climates hitherto tried, that have not succeded admirably. Sterility is, indeed, sometimes occasioned by the prevalence of south-east winds, known here by the appellation of *Seirocco*; but, generally speaking, they pass away without doing any material injury to vegetation.'—

'The climate of this island is uncommonly salubrious, owing, perhaps, in a great measure, to its surface being ventilated, for nearly three-fourths of the year, with westerly winds, and to there being no swamps or marshy ground, the cause of so much disease in Sicily; these and the peculiarity of the soil may also account for the non-existence of any venomous animals, so abundant in the neighbouring countries. St. Paul has, however, the merit of having driven every kind of poisonous reptile out of Malta, soon after his arrival *. Persons of consumptive habits have very erroneously chosen this as a place in which they might be likely to recover; but there is, I believe, no instance upon record, of any valetudinarian having derived the least benefit from a *sejour* here: in fact, no convalescent should think of Malta, while he can have recourse to the air of several parts of Sicily, the Morea, or Tunis, as the sudden and frequent transitions from heat to cold, and *vice versa*, have always been found extremely unwholesome to weak constitutions. Indeed, whilst speaking of the climate of Malta, I think it of the utmost importance to guard parents who come here from England against bringing young children with them, as it has been attended with very fatal consequences. The air of this place is by no means calculated for children under six or seven years of age; but in those cases where maternal tenderness will not admit of a separation, mothers would do well to superintend the regimen of their offspring, and to avoid giving them too much fruit.'

* Mr. B. does not here advert to the doubt whether the Melita of St. Paul be the Malta of our days. *Rev.*

Deficient

Deficient as is the system of education in Malta, it affords many examples of natives having risen to eminence on the continent, particularly in Paris, Vienna, and Naples. The Maltese language is a mixture of the Punic and Arabic, and the dress of the women is very similar to that which is used on the shores of Barbary. The inhabitants were formerly proverbial for their sobriety: but this is a virtue which here, as in Sicily, has flourished much less since the appearance of our countrymen among them. — Mr. B. concludes his account of Malta with a brief sketch of its history, and with expressing an anxious wish that the inhabitants may at last obtain the object for which they have been ardently praying, during fourteen years, 'a constitution uniting the spirit of their own free and legitimate one with that of Great Britain.'

In terminating this article, and forming an estimate of the merits of the work, we must make a distinction between the matter and the composition. Without vouching for the uniform accuracy of the former, we have no hesitation in pronouncing that it is greatly superior, in variety, good sense, and entertainment, to that which is often given to the world under the imposing garb of portly quartos. The maps also prefixed to each volume, though small, are extremely perspicuous. The style, on the other hand, is deficient in elegance, and appears still more so from the careless manner of correcting the press. In Vol. ii. p. 172., we have a paragraph beginning, 'should the political events of Europe, a circumstance by no means impossible, render it necessary,' &c. Similar blemishes are scattered throughout the narrative of the proceedings at Naples subsequent to 1798. In one passage, (Vol. i. p. 313.) we have 'Lacedemonians' for 'Carthaginians;' and in another, (Vol. ii. p. 296.) the plundering of the Malta hospital is called rather quaintly a '*powerful* injury to the pride of the Maltese.' In Vol. i. p. 218. we find a very proper tribute to the character of Mr. Bentham, but it concludes with the unlucky interrogation, 'What could have induced Mr. Bentham to leave England, the only spot in Europe where his sublime talents could be easily rendered useful? There is a mystery connected with this subject, which I cannot divine.' Mr. Blaquiere might have spared himself all the perplexity of 'divining,' had he merely taken the pains to ascertain that Mr. Bentham has *not* quitted this country, but remains quietly at his own fire-side. These faults are the more deserving of reprehension, because the author, in his introduction, shews no disposition to treat with indulgence the labours of his predecessors. 'I looked in vain in them,' he says, 'for that information which is calculated to convey an adequate idea of political and commercial resources.' Such irregularities, however,

however, are chiefly to be regretted as circumscribing the extent of advantage to be derived from a perusal of the book; since of the mass of statements and conclusions brought forwards by Mr. B., the belief of a great proportion must rest in the reader's estimate of the habitual accuracy of the writer. To adduce specific authorities for every assertion of consequence, in a descriptive work, would be endless; and nothing is more vexatious to a reader who is desirous of accepting an author's communications as accurate, than to discover the prevalence of error in such particulars as happen to fall within the sphere of his personal knowlege. We make these animadversions less from a wish to censure a valuable production, than from the hope of seeing it in a more correct form, when the public favour calls for a second edition.

ART. V. *Memoirs of the Reign of King Charles the First.* By Sir Philip Warwick, Knight. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

NEW editions of the antient Chroniclers have lately been undertaken, and it is equally expedient that we should be furnished with new editions of the Memorialists. Many individuals have attached, to some account of themselves and their transactions, various important features of the history of their own times; which, unless studied in the original sketch, will always reach the mind with some stain that differs from the proper or primitive colouring.

The biographies, correspondences, and documents, which it is most desirable to reprint, are perhaps those that are connected with the Reformation; and now that admiration of that event has somewhat subsided, criticism may begin with it. Scriptural and ecclesiastical studies have lately made a great progress; and we are ripe to appretiate less partially the conduct of those who, in waging salutary war against the Catholic religion, retained too many of the absurdities of its mysticism, destroyed too many of the monuments of its art, and, in asserting the right of private judgment, often exhibited its injudicious exercise. Next to the ecclesiastical revolution which occupied this country under Henry VIII., Edward VI., and Elizabeth, the most interesting is the civic revolution which hurled from the throne our first native prince of the Stuart dynasty. It is well to make a preliminary study both of the secret and the literary history of the reign of James the First; a monarch who was modelled on the Medici, and endeavoured to realize the Italian licentious idea of a gentleman: whose profuse ennoblement of exceptionable persons shook the na-

tional reverence for nobility, and contributed perhaps more to the succeeding republicanism of sentiment than any imprudence, or versatility, or insincerity, of his son King Charles.

It must be allowed that the age of James I. was learned as well as libertine; and at no subsequent period has audacity of mind in England attained a higher tone. The reign of Louis XV. in France was also pacific, tolerant, and depraved, yet adorned with a constellation of literary glory. In both cases, the opinions formed by the surrounding mass of intellect tended to condemn the throne: but these were promulgated so slowly, that they did not become sufficiently popular for action till the succeeding reigns. Against James I., or Louis XV., it would have been just to rebel, and natural to proclaim republicanism as a principle of reinforcement during insurrection: but civic retribution seems to have visited the sins of the fathers on the children, when it sent to the scaffold here the first Charles, and at Paris the sixteenth Louis. With some grievances which should have been redressed, and some perfidies against which it would have been necessary to guard, the extreme catastrophe in both instances seems to have been employed rather because the mob, and especially the soldiery, feared in the King the ultimate avenger of their insurrection, than because any weighty interest of liberty required the sacrifice.

The Memoirs here republished were written by Sir Philip Warwick, a gentleman of probity and talents; who, by means of his employments under Charles I., had frequent opportunities of near attendance on the King's person, and of knowing the inmost springs of considerable occurrences, whether they grew out of individual or out of party volitions. Philip Warwick, whose subsequent title was a result of the King's favour, was born in 1608, and was son of the organist at Westminster-abbey. Educated for some time at Eton-college, he was thence transferred to the University at Geneva, which at that time was a favourite academy for the sons of Protestant gentlemen, who wished to acquire the continental languages. Diodati of Lucca lectured there, with more applause than his writings authorize us now to bestow: but the popular teachers of all societies commonly owe much to delivery, to fluency, and to a deference for those average impressions which constitute the circulating sentiments of an age, but are nevertheless evanescent.

Francis Wriothesley, Earl of Southampton, engaged Philip Warwick on his return home as a secretary to the treasury; where his orderly and attentive conduct occasioned his being practically intrusted with the care of that department, and his consequent knighthood. Uniformly attached to his original patron, Sir Philip was employed in seven public and

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in three private treaties between the King and the Parliament, which gave him peculiar opportunities of collecting the information that is embodied in these Memoirs. He married in 1638 Miss Dorothy Hutton of York, and in 1647 the widow of Sir William Botteler, who was related to General Fairfax. An Oxford degree was conferred on him in 1639; and in the year following he was elected burgess for Radnor in Wales, but was expelled from the Long Parliament by the republicans. In 1678 he completed a "Discourse on Government," which was edited in 1694 by Dr. T. Smith, a non-juring divine; whose preface was so much marked by his political principles, that he was obliged to retrench it under a threat of prosecution. Sir Philip died in 1682 at Chiselhurst in Kent, to which parish he bequeathed some charitable donation. He left in manuscript these Memoirs of the Reign of King Charles the First, which were first published by Dr. Thomas Smith in 1702, and are now re-edited, we understand, by Mr. Walter Scott.

Sir Philip Warwick displays in this work the talent of an accomplished and the experience of a busy man. Steady to his party, though not bigotted to it, he preserved the esteem of his antagonists; and such was the natural moderation or the equity of his temper, that he could intermarry and intervisit with the family of General Fairfax, without rendering his loyalty suspicious or his home quarrelsome. His narrations have the garrulity and the placidity of age; his details are brought out more for the sake of definition than of colouring: the concinnity of his style indicates that he was accustomed to Italian models, not that he was ambitious of admirable eloquence; and his profusion of petty commentary is oftener read with complacency than with irksomeness. Like Hume, he inspires pity for royalty, rather than royalism. The Memoirs describe especially at considerable extent the entire reign of Charles the First, and give a more abbreviated and succinct narrative of those transactions subsequent to the King's death, which were connected with preparing the accession of his son.

The character of Charles is as fair a specimen as we can select:

'At a time when all the rest of the world was embroiled in war, and heavy laden under taxes; we in our manufactures, shipping, and trading, were reaping the advantages of their ill condition. And it could scarce be otherwise, when we shall give the true character of this highly good, but most unfortunate prince. He was a person, though born sickly, yet who came, through temperance and exercise, to have as firm and strong a body as most persons I ever knew, and throughout all the fatigues of the war, or during his imprisonment, was never sick. His appetite was to plain meats, and though he took a good quantity thereof, yet it was suitable to an easy digestion. He seldom ate of above three dishes at most, nor drank above thrice:

a glass of small beer, another of claret wine, and the last of water; he ate suppers as well as dinners heartily, but betwixt meals he never meddled with any thing. Fruit he would eat plentifully, and with this regularity he moved as steadily as a star follows his course. His deportment was very majestic, for he would not let fall his dignity, no, not to the greatest foreigners that came to visit him and his court; for though he was far from pride, yet he was careful of majesty, and would be approached with respect and reverence. His conversation was free, and the subject matter of it (on his own side of the court) was most commonly rational; or, if facetious, not light. With any artist or good mechanic, traveller, or scholar, he would discourse freely; and as he was commonly improved by them, so he often gave light to them in their own art or knowledge. For there were few gentlemen in the world that knew more of useful or necessary learning than this prince did: and yet his proportion of books was but small, having, like Francis the First of France, learned more by the ear than by study. His way of arguing was very civil and patient; for he seldom contradicted another by his authority, but by his reason: nor did he by any petulant dislike quash another's argument; and he offered his exception by this civil introduction, "By your favour, Sir, I think otherwise on this or that ground:" yet he would discountenance any bold or forward address unto him. And in suits or discourse of business, he would give way to none abruptly to enter into them, but looked that the greatest persons should in affairs of this nature address to him by his proper ministers, or by some solemn desire of speaking to him in their own persons. His exercises were manly; for he rode the great horse very well, and on the little saddle he was not only adroit, but a laborious hunter or field-man; and they were wont to say of him that he failed not to do any of his exercises artificially, but not very gracefully; like some well-proportioned faces, which yet want a pleasant air of countenance. He had a great plainness in his own nature, and yet he was thought even by his friends to love too much a versatile man; but his experience had thoroughly weaned him from this at last.'

Here we wished for a note. Who is the versatile man that is mentioned in the text? Sir Harry Vane is named soon afterward, as if the author had him in view: but the allusion remains somewhat uncertain.

Throughout this edition, the original orthography is modernized, but not always corrected. The various speeches and emphatic sentences formerly printed in Italics now appear in the Roman character. Notes are occasionally attached which pretend to supply the deficient information of the text, or refer the reader to such supplement: but these notes are not sufficiently numerous and extensive to constitute an essentially important addition to the original narrative; though they display considerable reading in the primary reservoirs of intelligence, quote industriously certain books lately reprinted at Edinburgh, and include several convenient explanations of passing

passing allusions. Some dexterity seems to have been observed in adding these notes as fast as the printer left his prototype behind, and no faster: for almost every fact occurs at the same page of this and of the old edition; and yet the fresh impression includes more words in a page than the old one. This is a new but a wise principle of annotation, and is natural in a typographical age, because it renders each successive edition equally convenient for purposes of search and of citation. Some printer by profession no doubt invented this ingenious art of editing by the sheet; so as to bring, if not the single pages, at least every sixteenth, into correspondence. We recommend in future a steady attention to this management in those who reprint old books. The aberration of reference from the text to which a reference is necessary is constantly progressive with the multiplication of editions; and for want of the impression quoted, we are often at a loss to verify a critical passage: but, if every sheet continues to comprize the same precise materials, no variety of indication can mislead farther than a page or a leaf; and the arts of associating ideas are now so well understood, that it is always easy for a practised author to fill up any given lacuna of an inch, or an inch and half, with an adapted note.

If this edition had contained the Discourse on Government by Sir Philip Warwick, it would have included all the known works of this writer; who is valuable not merely as an historiographer, but as a sample of the man of education in his time; and who carries into all his compositions that tutored manner, which then was considered as essential to the accomplished gentleman. His style delineates his age. In the Secret History of James the First *, to which this volume is intended as a supplement, the omission of Osborne's Advice to his Son is in like manner to be regretted. — A reprint of the "Memoirs of Sir John Reresby," here advertized as preparing, in continuation of the editor's design, has since been published.

ART. VI. *Relation of the Siege of Tarragona*, and the Storming and Capture of that City by the French, in June 1811. By Field Marshal Don Juan Senen de Contreras, Governor of that Fortress at the Time of the Siege. With Particulars of the General's Escape from the strong Castle in which he was confined, his Observations on the Spirit of the People, and the Nature, Stratagems, and Resources of the French Government. 8vo. pp. 100. 5s. Booth. 1813.

WE are here presented with a plain and interesting account of one of the most sanguinary events in this age of battles

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* See Rev. for March 1812.

and sieges. After having flattered himself with accomplishing the reduction of Cadiz and Lisbon without placing on the side of Catalonia any thing more than an army of observation, Bonaparte, in the spring of 1811, found it expedient to change his plan, and to direct an overpowering force against Tortosa and Tarragona; which had long been places of refuge and support to the neighbouring inhabitants, who were by far the most active and enterprising of the Spanish nation. When Massena had failed in Portugal, the reinforcements perpetually arriving from France in Spain were added to the eastern army commanded by Suchet; who, without being reputed to possess extraordinary talents, was in high favour with his master, on account of that habit of decision which hesitates at no sacrifice to accomplish its object.

Having succeeded in reducing Tortosa, Suchet appeared with an army of forty thousand men in the end of April before Tarragona, and began forthwith a course of operations which shewed that to preserve the lives of his troops was with him altogether a subordinate consideration. In one of his obstinate efforts to forward his progress by assault, he is said to have lost in taking the small fort of Olivo not fewer than 2000 men. This affair occurred on 29th May; and it was not till two days afterward that the Spanish General in chief, withdrawing from the town, ordered Marshal Contreras to take on himself the command of the garrison. Nothing could exceed the zeal of the troops and of the inhabitants; a zeal which supplied in a great measure the very deficient fortifications of the place, and required to be frequently restrained, but never stimulated: although the garrison had the mortification of seeing both a Spanish and an English force decline to disembark and aid them in what appeared a hopeless contest. After unremitting efforts, the French had, by the 27th of June, effected several practicable breaches, and prepared for a general assault. Contreras, finding his garrison still 8000 strong, had hopes of driving back the enemy by the bayonet, and refused to capitulate. The French, marching up in column, were at first checked, but soon made their way into the heart of the place, the Spaniards being too unskilful to fulfil all the instructions of their commander. The loss on the part of the garrison was not great, Suchet preferring the grant of their lives to the hazard attendant on a conflict of despair: but, no sooner were the French in complete possession of the town, than a general pillage and even massacre took place, on the base calculation in the mind of Suchet, that the exhibition of so horrid a spectacle might have the effect of diminishing the resistance of other places. He had even anticipated this event two days before, and says, in his report

report of the capture, that the terrible example which he foresaw had been accomplished, and would long resound throughout Spain.

When Marshal Contreras was brought prisoner to the French camp, Suchet affected to charge him in public with the whole bloodshed consequent on the assault; while, in private, he spared no efforts to detach him from the cause of the Spanish patriots, and enlist him in that of his master. The Marshal continuing inflexible, he was carried a close prisoner into France; and, although Bonaparte professed to issue an order to treat him with the attention due to his rank, he was immured in the castle of Bouillon with eleven state prisoners who had long lost all hope of release, notwithstanding the expiration of their prescribed term of confinement. With one of these, however, he found means to escape, and wandered throughout France, sometimes on foot, sometimes on horseback, during eight months. Part of this period was the time immediately subsequent to the disaster of Bonaparte in Russia; and this indignant Spaniard had the mortification to see the unfortunate conscripts obliged, in all directions, to march and obey the mandates of their tyrant. The Marshal arrived in England in June last.

The extent of falsehood practised by Bonaparte and his agents was not surpassed even by that of Robespierre. It was announced in all the French papers, and even by authority of government, that a Concordat had been signed in January with the Pope; and the manner of notifying this circumstance was related so directly and circumstantially, that scarcely any part of the public distrusted the authenticity of the statement, the articles being regularly enumerated, and the conditions exhibited in the most specific manner. The result, however, shewed that the Pope remained a prisoner; and he refused, we believe, to submit to sign any thing, or even to receive the Cardinals sent by Bonaparte. Still the practical effect of this manœuvre was to impose for a season on the French nation, who were much dissatisfied with Bonaparte's treatment of the Holy Father. It facilitated accordingly the vast drain made in the population by the Conscription; the amount of which, in the course of the last year, has probably not been short of 800,000 men!

ART. VII. *The Bride of Abydos.* A Turkish Tale. By Lord Byron. 8vo. pp. 72. 5s. 6d. sewed. Murray. 1813.

LORD Byron has again presented us with a delightful little poem; not, indeed, free from faults, but abounding in beauties which warrant us in bestowing almost unqualified praise. It is necessary, however, that, in offering these commendations,

mendations, we should be understood as applying them to the execution rather than to the nature of the work. We still look anxiously for the time when the noble author shall resume his suit to the graver and more dignified Muse who accompanied Childe Harold on his pilgrimage; and, if in the meanwhile we gratefully accept such efforts as the present, it is because we consider them in the light of studies with which the accomplished artist fills up the intervals which he is unable or disinclined to employ on his greater works, or in which he tries the effect of beauties that he may afterward use them with more certainty and power of effect.

In this as in his former works, Lord Byron displays a singular mixture of gloom and playfulness; in some instances, as the reader cannot fail to remark, not blended with sufficient softness, but always giving an air of originality. The poem is written in irregular verse, resembling the Giaour *, and even sometimes resembling Mr. Southey's Curse of Kehama: but it does not in other respects bear much affinity to the former composition. The story is simple, and told with as much regularity as is consistent with the object of keeping up the interest of the reader to the end. The laboured passages, too, are more connected with the progress of the fable, and the whole is of a more dramatic cast than its predecessor displayed. Some passages of general poetry are interwoven with much art and felicity; though, on the whole, they are not so numerous nor so highly wrought as those in the Giaour.

It is not our intention to waste the time of those readers to whom the work is known, and to destroy by anticipation the pleasure of those who are unacquainted with it, by giving any account of the tale which the author has chosen. It will be sufficient to say that it possesses interest, and some novelty; and that it is managed, altogether, with a proper attention to character and costume. The catastrophe, indeed, is effected with too much hurry; and something more of confusion is manifest in the concluding scene than even a fray in the night can authorize, — at least in poetry. The addition of a very few more lines would be sufficient to obviate these objections; and we have no doubt that Lord Byron will have ample opportunities of removing any imperfections of which he may be convinced,

* A disagreement prevails as to the pronunciation of this word. In the work of which it forms the title, it is spelt as above; in the present, the 'a' is dropped. We have generally heard the word pronounced with the G hard, and by persons who have had opportunities of being familiar with the term in its own country: but, on the other hand, Dr. Clarke spells the word *Djour*, from which it would appear that he understood the pronunciation differently.

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in future editions of the poem. We also think that Selim's speech to Zuleika in the grotto (see canto 2nd) is considerably too prolix. We do not object to that part of it which is narrative; on the contrary, the story is told with clearness and spirit: but to that long train of reflection which begins with the change of metre in page 44. This passage, though very beautiful in itself, detains the reader much too long from the progress of the narrative in the midst of which it is introduced; and it is by no means naturally placed in the mouth of the speaker at so very critical a moment. — We shall now proceed to make some extracts; and, for the reason already given, we shall select those which have the least connection with the detail of the story.

The following scene occurs near the opening of the poem. The hero and heroine are left together, after the former has received an undeserved reproach from the father of the latter; Zuleika at that time believing Selim to be her brother:

'No word from Selim's bosom broke —
One sigh Zuleika's thought bespoke —
Still gazed he through the lattice grate,
Pale — mute — and mournfully sedate —
To him Zuleika's eye was turned,
But little from his aspect learned;
Equal her grief — yet not the same,
Her heart confessed a gentler flame —
But yet that heart alarmed or weak,
She knew not why, forbade to speak —
Yet speak she must — but when essay —
"How strange he thus should turn away!
Not thus we e'er before have met,
Not thus shall be our parting yet."—
Thrice paced she slowly through the room,
And watched his eye — it still was fixed —
She snatched the urn wherein was mixed
The Persian Atar-gul's perfume,
And sprinkled all its odours o'er
The pictured roof and marble floor —
The drops, that through his glittering vest
The playful girl's appeal addrest,
Unheeded o'er his bosom flew,
As if that breast were marble too —
"What sullen yet? it must not be —
Oh! gentle Selim, this from thee!"
She saw in curious order set
The fairest flowers of eastern land —
"He loved them once — may touch them yet,
If offered by Zuleika's hand."
The childish thought was hardly breathed
Before the rose was pluck'd and wreathed —

The

The next fond moment saw her seat
Her fairy form at Selim's feet —
"This rose to calm my brother's cares
A message from the Bulbul bears;
It says to-night he will prolong,
For Selim's ear his sweetest song —
And though his note is somewhat sad,
He'll try for once a strain more glad,
With some faint hope his altered lay
May sing these gloomy thoughts away.

"What — not receive my foolish flower! —
Nay then I am indeed unblest:
On me can thus thy forehead lower?
And know'st thou not who loves thee best?
Oh, Selim dear! — Oh, more than dearest!
Say, is it me thou hat'st or fearest!
Come, lay thy head upon my breast,
And I will kiss thee into rest,
Since words of mine — and songs must fail,
Even from my fabled nightingale.
I knew our sire at times was stern,
But this from thee had yet to learn —
Too well I know he loves thee not,
But is Zuleika's love forgot?
Ah! deem I right? the Pacha's plan —
This kinsman Bey of Carasman
Perhaps may prove some foe of thine —
If so — I swear by Mecca's shrine,
If shrines, that ne'er approach allow
To woman's step, admit her vow —
Without thy free consent, command —
The Sultan should not have my hand!
Think'st thou that I could bear to part
With thee — and learn to halve my heart?
Ah! were I severed from thy side,
Where were thy friend — and who my guide?
Years have not seen — Time shall not see
The hour that tears my soul from thee —
Even Azrael from his deadly quiver
When flies that shaft — and fly it must —
That parts all else — shall doom for ever
Our hearts to undivided dust!"

He lived — he breathed — he moved — he felt —
He raised the maid from where she knelt —
His trance was gone — his keen eye shone
With thoughts that long in darkness dwelt —
With thoughts that burn — in rays that melt.—
As the stream late concealed
By the fringe of it's willows—
When it rushes revealed
In the light of its billows,—

As the bolt bursts on high
From the black cloud that bound it —
Flash'd the soul of that eye
Through the long lashes round it.
A war-horse at the trumpet's sound,
A lion roused by heedless hound;
A tyrant waked to sudden strife
By graze of ill-directed knife,
Starts not to more convulsive life
Than he, who heard that vow, displayed,
And all, before repressed, betrayed.
" Now thou art mine, for ever mine," ' &c. &c.

Canto II. opens with an address to the Hellespont, and an allusion (in very good taste) to the story of Hero and Leander; after which, the author breaks into this fine address to the first of poets, and the lands which that poet has immortalized:

' The winds are high — and Helle's tide
Rolls darkly heaving to the main;
And Night's descending shadows hide
That field with blood bedew'd in vain;
The desart of old Priam's pride —
The tombs — sole relics of his reign —
All, save immortal dreams that could beguile
The blind old man of Scio's rocky isle!

' Oh! yet — for there my steps have been,
These feet have press'd the sacred shore,
These limbs that buoyant wave hath borne —
Minstrel! with thee to muse, to mourn —
To trace again those fields of yore —
Believing every hillock green,
Contains no fabled hero's ashes —
And that around the undoubted scene
Thine own " broad Hellespont" still dashes —
Be long my lot — and cold were he
Who there could gaze denying thee!

' The night hath closed on Helle's stream,
Nor yet hath risen on Ida's hill
That moon, which shone on his high theme —
No warrior chides her peaceful beam,
But conscious shepherds bless it still.
Their flocks are grazing on the mound
Of him who felt the Dardan's arrow; —
That mighty heap of gather'd ground
Which Ammon's son ran proudly round,
By nations rais'd, by monarchs crown'd,
Is now a lone and nameless barrow!
Within — thy dwelling-place how narrow,
Without — can only strangers breathe
The name of him that *was* beneath.
Dust long outlasts the storied stone —
But thou — thy very dust is gone!'

From

From the same canto, we select a description of the figure of Selim, when Zuleika meets him in the grotto:

'His robe of pride was thrown aside,
His brow no high-crown'd turban bore,
But in its stead a shawl of red,
Wreath'd lightly round, his temples wore:—
That dagger, on whose hilt the gem
Were worthy of a diadem,
No longer glitter'd at his waist,
Where pistols unadorn'd were braced.
And from his belt a sabre swung,
And from his shoulder loosely hung
The cloak of white—the thin capote
That decks the wandering Candiote:
Beneath—his golden-plated vest
Clung like a cuirass to his breast—
The greaves below his knee that wound
With silvery scales were sheathed and bound.
But were it not that high command
Spake in his eye—and tone and hand—
All that a careless eye could see
In him was some young Galiongée.'

The sorrow expressed by Zuleika, at the discovery which her supposed brother makes to her, is one of the happiest passages in the poem, and presents one of the most beautifully natural images which we ever contemplated: but, for the reason already given, we forbear to extract it.

The following is part of the speech of Selim to which we have objected, as ill placed; by itself, it is spirited and tender:

'"Ay! let me like the ocean-Patriarch roam,
Or only know on land the Tartar's home,—
My tent on shore—my galley on the sea—
Are more than cities and Serais to me;
Borne by my steed or wafted by my sail,
Across the desart, or before the gale,
Bound where thou wilt, my barb! or glide my prow,
But be the star that guides the wanderer—Thou!
Thou, my Zuleika, share and bless my bark—
The Dove of peace and promise to mine ark!
Or since that hope denied in worlds of strife—
Be thou the rainbow to the storms of life!
The evening beam that smiles the clouds away,
And tints to-morrow with prophetic ray!
For thee in those bright isles is built a bower
Blooming as Aden in its earliest hour.
A thousand swords—thy Selim's heart and hand—
Wait—wave—defend—destroy—at thy command!
Girt by my band—Zuleika at my side—
The spoil of nations shall bedeck my bride:—

The Haram's languid years of listless ease
Are well resign'd for cares — for joys like these:
Not blind to fate — I see where'er I rove
Unnumber'd perils — but one only love!
Yet well my toils shall that fond breast repay,
Though fortune frown, or falser friends betray.
How dear the dream! in darkest hours of ill,
Should all be changed, to find thee faithful still!
Be but thy soul, like Selim's, firmly shown —
To thee, be Selim's tender as thine own!
To soothe each sorrow — share in each delight —
Blend every thought — do all but disunite!
Once free — 'tis mine our horde again to guide —
Friends to each other, foes to aught beside: —
Yet there we follow but the bent assign'd
By fatal Nature to man's warring kind,
Mark! where his carnage and his conquests cease —
He makes a solitude — and calls it — peace!' *

At the conclusion of the poem, a Turkish superstition is beautifully introduced. A lady, after death, is transformed into a white rose; which, though withered by storms or plucked from the stem, continually buds and blooms anew: while her lover, changed by transmigration into a bird, sings to her incessantly through the night:

'Within the place of thousand tombs
That shine beneath, while dark above
The sad but living cypress glooms
And withers not, though branch and leaf
Are stamped with an eternal grief;
Like early unrequited Love!
One spot exists — which ever blooms,
Ev'n in that deadly grove. —
A single rose is shedding there
It's lonely lustre, meek and pale,
It looks as planted by Despair —
So white — so faint — the slightest gale
Might whirl the leaves on high;
And yet, though storms and blight assail,
And hands more rude than wintry sky
May wring it from the stem — in vain —
To-morrow sees it bloom again!
The stalk some spirit gently rears,
And waters with celestial tears.
For well may maids of Helle deem
That this can be no earthly flower,
Which mocks the tempest's withering hour
And buds unsheltered by a bower,

* "*Ubi solitudinem faciunt, pacem appellant.*" (Tacitus.) Probably, this is an unconscious plagiarism. *Rev.*

Nor

Nor droops—though spring refuse her shower
Nor woos the summer beam.—
To it the livelong night there sings
A bird unseen—but not remote—
Invisible his airy wings,
But soft as harp that Houri strings
His long entrancing note!
It were the Bulbul—but his throat,
Though mournful, pours not such a strain;
For they who listen cannot leave
The spot, but linger there and grieve
As if they loved in vain!
And yet so sweet the tears they shed,
'Tis sorrow so unmixed with dread,
They scarce can bear the morn to break
That melancholy spell,
And longer yet would weep and wake,
He sings so wild and well!
But when the day-blush bursts from high—
Expires that magic melody.'

Perhaps our readers will think that none of these extracts are entirely equal to the similes on Modern Greece, and on the Cashmire Butterfly, in the Giaour: but they will undoubtedly see in them the same character and genius; and we have already said that we consider the merit of the present tale to consist less in detached passages, than in the spirited and poetical manner in which the story is wrought. The opening stanza, describing 'the Clime of the East,' should not pass unnoticed:

'Know ye the land where the cypress and myrtle
Are emblems of deeds that are done in their clime,
Where the rage of the vulture—the love of the turtle—
Now melt into sorrow—now madden to crime?—
Know ye the land of the cedar and vine?
Where the flowers ever blossom, the beams ever shine,
Where the light wings of Zephyr, oppressed with perfume,
Wax faint o'er the gardens of Gúl in her bloom;
Where the citron and olive are fairest of fruit,
And the voice of the nightingale never is mute;
Where the tints of the earth, and the hues of the sky,
In colour though varied, in beauty may vie,
And the purple of Ocean is deepest in die;
Where the virgins are soft as the roses they twine,
And all, save the spirit of man, is divine,'—&c.

Some couplets betray great carelessness, and in a poem of this length are not excusable; such as the following:

'I'd joy to see thee break a lance,
Albeit against my own *perchance.*'

—— ‘ she turn'd to *see*
Her Selim. “ Oh, can this be he!” ’
‘ If thou my tale, Zuleika, doubt,
Call Haroun, *he can tell it out*.’

It must also be observed that such rhymes as ‘ *brought*’ and *remote*,’ ‘ *poured*’ and ‘ *coward*,’ are inadmissible.

We are very happy that it is consistent with our duty to award so much praise to a poet who, from his rank and situation in life, is able to render such important services to the cause of literature, and to raise it so highly in the estimation of the world, as the noble author now before us; and we claim the merit of sincerity (always, we hope, our due) with the more confidence in this instance, because it will be in the recollection of our readers that we were among the first to hail the appearance of Lord Byron's muse *, and to acknowlege the promise of the dawn of that genius of which the more advanced beams have shone so brightly. May the sentiment which we then suggested to Lord B., in the words of the great Roman orator, never fail to animate and direct his career in literature and through life! We trust that we shall soon have to meet his Lordship again; and, without diminishing the merit of the work before us, we hope that it will be to greet his efforts on a higher theme. †

ART. VIII. *Madame de* Staël *on Germany.*

[*Article continued from p.* 426. *of the last Volume.*]

THE xiiith chapter of this popular book reverses the scene, and transports the reader from the monotony of southern to the activity of northern Germany. It is justly observed that the Germans read to know or to enjoy, and not to talk; and that, in their commercial world, the society even of well-read men is little tinctured with literature. The Germans belong (as it were) to the business or matter in which they are engaged, and attach ideas of pedantry and impertinence to the mention of books at the ordinary, or in the club-room. Madame de Staël, however, has not seen much of the commercial world in Germany,

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* See his first publication, Rev. Vol. liv. N.S. p. 256.

† We have heard it remarked, more than once, that ‘ The *Bride* of Abydos’ is, in strictness, a misnomer, because Zuleika is not actually married, nor indeed actually about to be married. Johnson defines a bride to be “ a woman newly married;” and Bayley derives the word from a Saxon verb signifying “ to cherish or keep warm.” Perhaps, however, the word is in modern usage capable of signifying *a betrothed woman*, which it appears Zuleika was; and, at all events, such usage is within the license that is never denied to poets.

and

and trusts too implicitly to report; otherwise, she would have distinguished the hospitable and conversational tables of the booksellers.

Instead of contrasting Vienna with Leipzig, which would best have displayed the peculiarities of northern Germany, the fair author runs back to the Rhine, and again opposes the French character to the German. Even in the ferry-boat, the noise of the French servants, and the silent patience of inconvenience among the Germans, becomes obvious; and the toll-gate-keeper, contriving to open his gate, and to receive his due, without opening his door, is sketched with striking truth of nature.

To Saxony in particular, the fourteenth chapter is devoted. The diffusion of intellectual culture is there prominent. Innkeepers and custom-house officers are commonly acquainted with French literature; and they would scarcely be sufficiently accomplished for their stations, if they could not address the traveller in the language of that country. Music is practised in every house: the linen-weaver keeps his forte-piano beside the loom, and relieves his fingers, when stiffened from the shuttle, by employing them to dance on the keys. A feature of the German character, of which the English tradesman has some traces, is to attach importance to every thing. The lock of his door must turn well; his pipe must be of Hungarian soap-stone; his cork-screw must have come from England; and he will read a quarto volume on the theory of inclosed fires before he purchases a new oven-stove. This sense of importance extends to laying out a penny; it must be expended in the best manner, or not at all; and the discussion usually terminates in favour of some better opportunity: hence the exemplary frugality of the nation. All the working-classes seek their relaxation from labour in literature: the stone-cutter rests with his book in his hand, and his pipe in his mouth. A certain warm contemplative delight, in which animal and intellectual intoxication seem to mingle, constitutes the sovereign good, the bliss of soul, the supreme felicity, of a true German. It is a pleasure which he can attain in solitude, and which he can silently enjoy in company, but which he considers as enhanced by the presence of a quiet sympathy.

The honesty of the people, and the probity of the tradesmen, are duly and justly applauded. The great liberty of the press in Saxony is also remarked: indeed, it far transcends that which is vouchsafed in England, and would here be called a pernicious licentiousness. German writers are of opinion that literature has remedies within itself for all the evils which it can cause. The effect of calumny, they think, is to be overcome

come by re-statement; that of scandal, by inculcating moral tolerance; and that of obscenity, by defining the safe limits of indulgence. They profess to despise innocence, as unarmed against temptation; and they would found virtue merely on a preference for moral beauty, unaccompanied by displeasure at those who delight more in nudity and caricature. Their religious equals their moral latitude; as if truth, as well as virtue, were in many things only what men can agree to call by that name. The prologue to Goethe's Faustus brings the three persons of the Trinity on the stage; and not a single northern critic, we believe, in any of the leading Reviews, flinched, or winced, or pretended to be shocked: the book was printed at Tubingen. The superintendant Herder, or Professor Paulus, or indeed a village ecclesiastic of the Saxons, would smile in scorn at the fretfulness of an English bishop, in recommending a prosecution of *Ecce homo*. Schelling teaches aloud his pantheism, and Fichte his atheism, and these *isms* sound as well in the public ear as any other rhime to *schism*. The limited number of various forms, or theories, in which human minds can think about those things which do not come under the cognizance of the senses, are severally described and mentioned with equal indifference by Kant, and the subordinate metaphysicians.

'Among the Germans,' (says Mme. de Staël, with great felicity of expression,) 'truth resembles those statues of Hermes which have neither hands to seize nor legs to walk. To think and to act have seemingly no connection with each other. Opinion is an affair of the head, not of the conduct. Nothing, however, is so respectable as these peaceful conquests of reflection, which employ insulated men without fortune or power, and connected together only by the social worship of thought.'

Chapter XV. sketches Weimar; which was in fact the proper court to select for giving a general idea of the spirit that prevails among the petty princes of Germany, since it carried to higher perfection than any of its rivals the taste which animated them all. What Italy was under the Medici, a constellation of minute principalities uniting to give brilliancy to the lyre, Germany has been ever since the decease of Frederic the Great. While he lived, he concentrated the exclusive attention of his country: but, from the time of his death, the King at Berlin has been a man who might be eclipsed, — and many petty sovereigns of Germany have attempted to surpass him. These princes have been competitors with one another for the honour of securing by a pension, to be expended within the state, the residence of a distinguished poet, artist, or philosopher; and the Duke of Weimar managed to encircle his coronet with the brightest and most shining jewels. Herder died there; and Wieland, Goethe, and Schiller, were living there during the

stay of Madame de Staël. The house of Este never assembled at Ferrara a triad of equal poetic eminence. If the imperial or free cities of Germany have not offered to the fine arts so opulent a market as Venice, Genoa, Naples, and the religious Rome, the universities of Germany have presented to learning an arena of free display incompatible with catholicism; and thus the deficiency in plastic art is compensated by the excess in speculative erudition.

In the sixteenth chapter, Madame de Staël investigates Prussia; and the character of Frederic II. is first analyzed, as having founded that of the nation. 'He was a German by nature, and a Frenchman by education; that which the German did in a German kingdom has left enduring traces: but that which the Frenchman attempted has not germinated.' This is strikingly said, with strength of antithesis, but we demur to the truth of the proposition. — It was *French* in Frederic to patronize the *deniers* of miracles, the philosophists of France; and the established church of Prussia now teaches anti-supernaturalism from the pulpit. It was *French* in Frederic to make a new penal code, independent of the civil law and of the German law already established in his states, and to legislate in it concerning sins of the flesh with the latitudinarianism of Montesquieu: such lax criminal law is now universal in Germany. Lastly, it was *French* in Frederic to apply that military mechanism to his provinces, which gave ascendancy to his power at the expense of the privileges of the people. These things have all stood their ground. — It was *German* in Frederic to respect in each province its antient constitution, and to govern his acquisitions and his inheritances by as many distinct systems of administration as they had original sovereigns. This permanent heterogeneity of government has prevented the cohesion of his people, has perpetuated among them dissimilar tendencies, and has occasioned that separation of the Prussian power which took place at the first approach of a conqueror. It was *German* in Frederic to unite his party in the empire under the name of a *Fürsten-bund*, conformably to the laws and usages of the diet of Ratisbon; instead of assembling these princes to hold separate deliberative assemblies at Berlin. Insensibly his adherents would have become his house of peers, but for his constitutional patriotism: they are now neither allies nor subjects. Lastly, it was *German* in Frederic to save treasure against the day of want, and to lend on mortgage these accumulations to the provincial *land-states* for the enterprize of public works. This form of investiture induced the metropolitan government to concede great local rights of taxation, and thus prolonged an inconvenient independence of the provinces;

vinces; which had, moreover, a debt to cancel by submitting to a conqueror. If, on the contrary, he had adopted a funding-system, and if the provincial properties had been confided to the metropolitan bank, the tendency to allegiance would have been strengthened throughout the empire; since a loss would be incurred in that case by separating from the state. These things have *not* stood their ground.

We are here tempted to remark on the danger of a fine style, and to say that precision of assertion is occasionally sacrificed to prettiness of expression. French principles are not so much to be feared as French practice; — their rashness in the sudden application of their theories. They expect to accomplish in a year the work of a generation; they make at one effort constitutions of plaister of Paris, and then wonder that they are brittle: but the enduring marble requires centuries to crystallize.

With as much correctness of thought as of expression, Mme. de Staël observes (p. 142.) that 'into the north of Germany the Reformation had brought inquiry, but not tolerance; and that Frederic introduced there the liberty of thinking.' Many good remarks are made on his character and polity. He is blamed for not patronizing German literature: but the writers of his time were not very eminent. Klopstock indeed shone, the star of the Magi: but, except among the writers of the religious school, to which Frederic had an antipathy, not much greatness was displayed in his time. Wieland had produced Agathon, but no other of his classical master-pieces. Lessing was patronized by General Tauenzein; perhaps at Frederic's instigation, who might wish for such an historiographer of his warfare. Ramler was pensioned, though not liberally, by Frederic; Kleist was killed in his service, with every prospect of promotion.

Chapter XVII. paints Berlin characteristically. The eighteenth undertakes to judge the German universities, and very properly refers the reader to M. de Villers, who studied in one of them. In the nineteenth, Madame de S. treats of beneficent institutions, and mentions, but not with the desirable detail, the plans of Pestalozzi for bettering the education of the poor. A reference would have been welcome to some book in which they are explained: we cannot appretiate the criticism, because we have not the preliminary information. Due praise is given to Baron Voght; who travelled, like Howard, to inspect the institutions of charity, and endeavoured to domesticate the best systems of management.

The Swiss feast of Interlaken is entertainingly described in a somewhat episodical chapter, which terminates Part I.

This portion of the work, in all comprizing twenty chapters, would in our judgment have been more naturally and agreeably given in the form of a tour. Why not descend the Swiss mountains with the Danube, — describe Ratisbon, the senatorial metropolis of the empire, — and there criticize a constitution of which Pütter boasts in vain? Next in turn comes Vienna, which is excellently painted. In catching the spirit of the manners of elevated life, few travellers have displayed that judicious quickness of observation and of definition which distinguishes Madame de Staël. Prague might have been a sleeping-place: but Dresden deserved some prolongation of stay: it is the Florence of Germany: the well-built city, the station of the galleries of art, the most refined of the populous places, and is bosomed in scenery which has occupied the pencil of the most tasteful landscape-painters. A glance is taken at Leipzig: it contains two worlds, one literary and one commercial, which come sometimes into contact at the tables of the booksellers. Something of arrogance and self-sufficiency betrays itself about the German students: with much equality among one another, they look down superciliously on the trading class, and consider a college-education as a grade of nobility. They have so far a right to do this, that their acquirements do indeed usually amount to excellence: but they perhaps learn more than is wholesome for the human mind, and encumber with the weight of its armour the activity of the thought. Berlin could not be more aptly painted than it has been by Madame de Staël; and if her return to Swisserland had taken its direction through Frankfort, the most polished of the trading towns might also have been characterized. She closes her tour with Berne, which deserves to become the metropolis of independence, but which has often displayed more attachment to privileges than to freedom.

As the second part of this work treats of German literature, which is a topic rather of permanent than of eager interest, we shall defer to a future opportunity the continuation of our commentary: preserving indeed a willing pretext for revisiting the pages of this attractive writer. Acute, judicious, interesting, and comprehensive in her remarks, she expresses them with a skill even more admirable than her insight. Never flat from emptiness, never boisterous from eloquence, her periods approach the reader like the successive waves of a calm sea, which delight without disturbing the stillness of the twilight wanderer: — they are the waves of a summer-sea, warm with feeling, phosphorescent with fancy, each murmuring music, and each curling into brilliancy.

[*To be continued.*]

ART.

ART. IX. *Hamburgh;* or a particular Account of the Transactions which took place in that City, during the first six Months of the Year 1813; with a View of its previous State, and of the Conduct of the French during their six Years' Possession, both before and after its being annexed to the French Empire. By Hannibal Evans Lloyd, Esq., late of Hamburgh. 8vo. pp. 211. 7s. sewed. Richardson. 1813.

ART. X. *Observations made on a Tour from Hamburgh, through Berlin, Gorlitz, and Breslau, to Silberberg; and thence to Gottenburg.* By Robert Semple, Author of Two Journeys in Spain, a Sketch of the Caraccas, &c. Crown 8vo. pp. 275. 7s. Boards. Baldwin. 1814.

As the productions of Mr. Lloyd and Mr. Semple relate to nearly the same period of time, and are respectively appropriated to accounts of transactions in Germany, we are induced to place them together in our pages, though their object and mode of composition betray several shades of distinction. The first-mentioned tract is confined almost exclusively to public affairs; while the other, less copious in that respect, derives its chief interest from the personal adventures of the writer.

Mr. Lloyd informs his readers that he is a son of the well known General Lloyd, whose works on the principles of war have attracted much more attention among military men on the Continent than in this his native country. Mr. L. became an inhabitant of Hamburgh in 1800, and passed, in common with the other residents in that city, a life of great freedom and comfort, until the overthrow of the Prussian power in 1806 laid the north of Germany prostrate at the feet of France. From that time forwards, Hamburgh became subjected to heavy contributions, and was never without the presence of a large body of French troops. Spaniards, Italians, Germans, and native French, composed alternately the garrison of the city; of whom the Italians were the worst in their behaviour: but the inconvenience experienced from private individuals was trifling in comparison with the rapacity of the French government. The city-treasury had long been in the habit of receiving on account of widows, unmarried females, and orphans, deposits of money for which they paid interest: but Bonaparte made no scruple in seizing the whole fund, and totally suspending the annual payments. A similar fate was dealt out to a private institution of this nature, of great respectability; and even the merchants, who had the temerity to become contractors for the French government, were exposed to similar misery. It is no wonder, therefore, that the inhabitants of Hamburgh should rise, with premature activity, against their oppressors;

and, as soon as it became evident that the French were about to withdraw for a season, the populace broke forth into alarming irregularities. These events occurred on 24th February last, and, a fortnight afterward, the approach of a body of Cossacks obliged the French to retire. It would be difficult to describe the alacrity and enthusiasm with which the Hamburghers welcomed the rude warriors of the Don: but, unluckily, the judgment of the people or their government was not equal to their zeal; and the volunteer corps, associated under the name of the Hanseatic Legion, was composed in a very injudicious manner. The plan of their drilling was equally imperfect.

Though the non-appearance of the expected corps of Russian infantry caused considerable disquietude at Hamburgh, the complete overthrow of Morand's detachment at Luneburg by the Cossacks, in the beginning of April, re-established the public confidence for some time. The friendly disposition of Denmark co-operated to the same end; and, notwithstanding the approach of Davoust with a hostile force, the Hamburghers were comparatively tranquil, and fixed their principal attention on the movement of the grand armies in Saxony. Political considerations, however, soon made the Danes withdraw their assistance; and, although they were replaced first by a Swedish and next by a Prussian corps, the successive recall of both soon shewed that Hamburgh was too distant from the theatre of grand operations to count on effectual aid from the allied troops. The rupture also of the negotiation between Denmark and England, and the progress of Bonaparte in Saxony, led to a co-operation between the Danes and French, which rendered it wholly unadvisable for Tettenborn and his division of Cossacks to protract the defence of Hamburgh. The despair of the citizens on being obliged to return their arms, and suspend the defence of the town, is very pathetically described by Mr. Lloyd. Hundreds of young men of the volunteer corps quitted the city, before their eyes were afflicted with the painful sight of the triumphs of their oppressors; and it was computed that, exclusively of those who had figured in a military capacity, four thousand persons left the place on the day previous to the entrance of the French. The troops of the latter, on their arrival, were found to consist chiefly of conscripts, who were little more than boys, mixed with some old soldiers of various regiments. Their number was probably eight thousand; which, with their accustomed exaggeration, they magnified to thirty-five thousand. By way of striking awe into the inhabitants, their officers were in the habit of making the same battalions parade through different quarters of the town, marching in at one gate, out at another, and

and then in again; assuming, on the last occasion, the appearance of troops arrived from a distance.

The penal contribution imposed by Bonaparte on Hamburgh amounted to two millions sterling; a sum wholly beyond the ability of the city to raise, but which Davoust exerted himself to procure by seizing merchandise, and giving the proprietors *bons*, or orders on the magistracy to pay the value out of the contribution. The next care of the French was to set people at work on the fortifications, and to convert Hamburgh into a place of strength by destroying almost all that constituted the beauty of its environs. Every house, tree, and bush, within the range of the walls, was therefore levelled with the ground. — In the end of June, was published a decree to expel all Englishmen from the thirty-second military division, in which Hamburgh is, or rather was, situated. Mr. Lloyd, having anticipated a denunciation of this nature, withdrew forthwith; and, after considerable sacrifices of property, he proceeded with his family at Heligoland. The French decree not being yet known on that island, his representation to the governor, respecting the distressing arrivals that might soon be expected, had the effect of promoting measures which were calculated to relieve the misery of the forlorn emigrants.—Here ends his narrative; and, without much pretension to merit on the ground of composition, it affords a clear and apparently an impartial picture of the scenes that passed under his eye.

Mr. Semple has of late years come so frequently before the public as to be in some respects *un personnage connu*, and therefore his adventures possess a share of interest considerably beyond that which they would excite in the case of an unknown traveller. The little volume before us comprehends but a small stock of local observation, and is chiefly filled with the relation of a very singular mischance which befell the writer, in consequence of the destruction of his principal document of recommendation. — Scarcely had the victorious progress of the Russians effected a partial re-establishment of intercourse between England and the north of Germany, when Mr. Semple felt eager, as on other occasions, to combine commercial business with the gratification of curiosity, and took his passage, in the middle of April, in the packet for Heligoland. His fellow-voyagers were chiefly Germans, who were impatient to embrace the opportunity of revisiting their native country in the dawn of its recovered freedom. A favourable breeze from the west carried them in forty-eight hours to Heligoland; where, however, a change of wind detained Mr. Semple a whole week, by much too long a time for the survey of this unimportant spot. Its reputation has been solely owing to the

measure embraced by our government, of making it a temporary station during the shutting up of the continent; and, on the opening of the latter, it must infallibly revert to its former insignificance. Even its existence as an island does not promise to be prolonged for many centuries, if Mr. Semple be correct in his report of the crumbling nature of its shores. —On arriving at Hamburgh at the end of April, he was struck with the alacrity and bustle apparent in that city, although commercial transactions had scarcely yet commenced. Every one was occupied with military preparation, and many volunteer corps were formed on the model of their Russian allies:

'Whilst these imitations attracted a momentary attention, the true Cossack, close at hand, soon awakened a deeper interest. It was a curious spectacle to see these Scythians from the Tanais, welcomed as deliverers on the borders of the Elbe. A party of more than two hundred, who had recently arrived, were stationed on the outside of the Altona gate, and the citizens were carrying them provisions. Their horses were picketed in rows, their slender pikes of about twelve feet in length, and with a thong at the end, were stuck upright in the ground opposite, and they themselves forming into groups of eighteen or twenty, to receive their dinner. Their appearance was various, but martial. Some wore beards, others none. Here features regular, and even handsome, were contrasted with others, harsh, mean, and ferocious. The true Cossack appeared to me distinguished by little eyes, obliquely placed, and a countenance conveying the idea of being contracted by extreme cold, and the constant dazzling of snow. Among the rest were mixed a few Calmucks. Their high cheek bones, small oblique eyes, and general features, strongly recalled to mind my early friends, the Hottentots; but on a gigantic scale, they being in general the tallest and stoutest men of the party. Some wore a dress of sheep-skin, others over that the jackets of French soldiers, especially such as were distinguished by any finery. Among their arms and accoutrements, were Turkish, Russian, and French pistols, many French sabres, and some saddles. Before dining, most of them took off their caps, crossed themselves, and repeated a short prayer. They ate without voracity, but asked eagerly for spirits, under the common German name of snaps. After eating, some played at cards, some read letters, at which I was surprised, some conversed in groups, and others, stretched along the ground, placed their heads in their comrades' laps, who performed with their fingers the operation of combs. In general, they were stout men, of the ordinary height. Their horses were ragged, and neglected as to outward appearance, but shared in every other respect with the Cossack himself; small, but spirited, and kept under admirable discipline. When any disturbance took place among them at their pickets, the whip was immediately employed upon the offender. They tremble at the sound of it, when joined to the angry voice

voice of their master; but in return they partake of his bread, and receive correction and food from the same hand.'

Having remained some days at Hamburgh, Mr. Semple proceeded in a German stage, or, as it is appropriately called, "post waggon," to Berlin. This vehicle is a long narrow covered cart or waggon, with three or four seats slung across, and its after part stuffed with packages. Its slow progress could not be otherwise than tedious to an English traveller; but the magnificence of Berlin afforded an ample compensation for all the delay and inconvenience. The streets of this capital are broad and regular, while the houses are either built of stone or stuccoed so as to resemble stone. The number of public buildings, and their dispersed situations, have the effect of preventing too continued an uniformity, without exciting the idea of any deficiency of plan; while the river Spree, which runs through the central part, and is covered by numerous barges, gives an appearance of maritime commerce to this inland city. By means of this conveyance, the wood of the upland-forests, the linen of Silesia, and the more diversified manufactures of England, are transported to Berlin at a moderate expence. Its principal bridge consists of five arches, and is about one hundred and seventy feet in length. The pleasant impressions excited by these objects are not a little confirmed by the absence of a nuisance which, in other towns, is apt to occur in the neighbourhood of the most splendid edifices, we mean the importunity of beggars; for no sooner does a mendicant shew himself in the streets, than he is taken up by the police, and sent to amend his habits in the house of industry.

Mr. Semple's visit to Berlin took place in the beginning of May, a few days after the sanguinary conflict of Lutzen, which was represented by the Prussian government as a victory. Illuminations having been made on that account at Berlin, Mr. S. did not suppose that he was acting rashly in setting forwards on his journey to Dresden; and vexation at his subsequent treatment makes him complain of the silence of the agents at the Berlin passport-office, as if it were the practice of any government to acknowlege the apprehended retreat of its troops, or to put the safety of individual travellers in competition with considerations of general policy. — Having calculated on crossing the combined armies, Mr. Semple was provided with an introductory letter to Lord Cathcart. Proceeding on the Dresden road as far as Luckau, he and his fellow-travellers found a general alarm, different parties of the Cossacks being kept in readiness to reconnoitre the enemy; who, it was said, was advancing in great force. It now became indispensable for

for Mr. S. to change his route; and, unfortunately, in the confusion excited by contradictory reports concerning the vicinity of the enemy, he was induced to destroy his letter to Lord C. lest he might fall with it into the enemy's hands. After a confused and fatiguing ride of several days, he at last found the allied head-quarters stationed at the village of Wurtzen:

"In this village, most of the houses were deserted by the inhabitants, not a woman or child was to be seen; the doors were all open, and many of the windows broken or the sashes removed. The Emperor's head-quarters were in a large house, on the side of which facing Hochkirch, are still the marks made by cannon-balls, fired in that battle more than fifty years ago. They have been carefully preserved, and a Latin inscription records and deplores the cause: "*Eheu! Signa prælii Hochkirchiensis.*" In the large court-yard, filled with horses and Cossacks, I found a bundle of straw, where I gladly threw myself down whilst my companion went to deliver his dispatches. Scarcely had I done so, when the guard flew to arms; every body stood up, and the Emperor passed to enter the house. I beheld a man tall, lusty, well made, although somewhat round-shouldered, and of a countenance rather soft and mild than penetrating or imposing. — After I had remained about two hours among the Cossacks, the officer returned, and having directed his servant to show me the English quarters, we bade each other adieu. Having experienced so much kindness from Germans and Russians, I anticipated at least an equal share from Englishmen. Behold me at length arrived at the point to which, since leaving Luckau, I had been pressing with so much anxiety. Here at last I am sure of an asylum for a short time, and at all events will be enabled to sleep one night in peace, and prepare for fresh fatigues. Here I shall learn the truth, and no longer be reduced to wander in uncertainty, as to the real position of the enemy. Full of these ideas, I reached a miserable house, such as the village afforded, the head-quarters of Lord Cathcart. He was absent with the Emperor viewing the lines of redoubts, but his household received me with kindness and attention. They set before me bread, coffee, and the little luxury of milk, so difficult to be procured in the midst of a large army. They told me, that there was nothing but a little straw on which I could sleep; but this was more than was enjoyed by a hundred thousand brave men round me, and I had already in my mind cheerfully marked out the corner where I would lie. A great battle was expected to be fought next day. Refreshed by sleep I shall see, perhaps I shall share in that battle. With these thoughts I saw Lord Cathcart arrive; I presented my passports, I related my case, and mentioned that under the dread of falling into the hands of the French I had destroyed a letter which I had for his Lordship, but that I had still one for the Russian Admiral Greig, whom I understood to be with the Emperor. Having examined my passports he informed me that they contained no proof of my being a British subject, that I was avowedly born in America, and asked if I had no farther documents. I replied that my American birth was owing to my father and mother being made prisoners

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in the American war, and carried into Boston, and that as I had travelled with these passports through Prussia, I could have no suspicion of their being inaccurate, nor was I provided with any other. His Lordship left me, and after some time sent for me again. "It will be proper," said he, "that you go to Gorlitz, which is a large town, where you will easily procure horses and every accommodation for pursuing your journey to Colberg, the nearest sea-port now left open to an Englishman. There will be an opportunity this evening, and this gentleman," pointing to a young Russian officer, "will conduct you." Fain would I have expressed my wish to remain at Wurtschen, but under the existing circumstances I felt that it was not for me to oppose so direct an intimation. An hour afterwards I again saw his Lordship on horseback, who asked with much apparent politeness, "if there was any thing else he could do for me." I answered that there was not, when he touched his hat to me and rode off. Soon afterwards the Russian officer made his appearance, with a common travelling waggon, in which was some straw instead of seats; my portmanteau was placed in it, and we set off. His Majesty the King of Prussia, one of his sons, and two or three of his officers, had placed themselves by the side of the road, and surveyed me attentively as we passed. Not being aware of their rank, nor as yet of my own situation, I regarded their stedfast looks as singularly ill-bred, until my companion informed me who they were. We passed along the rear of the army to Weissenberg, a small place situated upon a height, where we arrived after dark. Here we halted upwards of an hour, my companion ordering quarters to be provided for the Russian Emperor for the next morning. I could not help observing at the same time, that he appeared exceedingly anxious about all my movements, and followed me wherever I went.'

The author was not long in acquiring a more distinct idea of his situation. His companion having fallen asleep, and Mr. S. stepping out of the carriage to exchange his sitting posture for a walk by the side of the vehicle, the Russian, on awaking, ordered him back in a tone which satisfied our traveller that he was no longer the master of his own movements. Arriving at Gorlitz, he had the mortification to find himself formally confined under the guard of two armed men. Our diplomatic countryman, Mr. George Jackson, happening to be at that time in Gorlitz, Mr. S. eagerly intreated his assistance, but without success, in consequence of his inability to answer with promptitude the different questions which Mr. J. deemed it necessary to put. Among other things, he was unable to say whether he recollected having obtained a passport from the British minister at Seville four years before, an inability solely to be ascribed to the confusion produced by three days and nights of constant anxiety. His interrogator, however, not being disposed to admit a plea of this nature, Mr. Semple

'Was removed to the prison of police, and placed in a large room at the top of the building, overlooking a little back court, filled with Cossacks

Cossacks and their horses. In the evening I procured something to eat, and my guard was changed, a Prussian and a Cossack being placed in my room, the one to secure the interests, or represent the person, of his Majesty the King of Prussia, and the other of his monarch, the Emperor of all the Russias. The idea of having armed men in my bed-room for the first time, was to me highly unpleasant. At length, however, I stretched myself upon a ragged couch which was provided for me, and endeavoured to fall asleep; when, towards midnight, the Cossack, who sat drinking by a table, drew his sabre, and began to sharpen it on a stone which he took from his pocket. On beholding this through my half-closed eyes, all desire of sleep instantly left me. I concluded, that this semi-barbarian had orders to kill me, which he only waited for my being asleep to execute. My heart began to throb at the near prospect of so miserable a death, when I fortunately observed my pistols and sword in the corner near me, and which it would have been easy for me to seize in an instant. This tranquillized my mind, and I lay all ready to make a spring towards them, should it be necessary, when the Cossack, sliding his finger along the edge of his sabre, looked towards me, and then at his Prussian companion, and, laughing, shook his head, and sheathed the weapon. At length he fell asleep, and I, who had not rested for three nights, in spite of anxious thoughts, followed his example.'

From Gorlitz, Mr. S. was conveyed, in the company of a suspected Frenchman, to the town of Lauban on the Queiss, to Lowenberg on the Bober, and subsequently to Goldberg on the Katzbach; names which have since become familiar to military men as the scene of Blucher's repeated victories. In these places, the appearance of the carriage and its conductors had the effect of attracting assemblages of the populace; and, on entering Breslau, the usual inquiry from the guard at the gate was answered by the formidable notice that the passengers were "state-prisoners." Under other circumstances, Mr. S. would have been highly gratified with the air of antique cleanliness that pervades Breslau: which, without the splendour of Berlin, has still a title to be called beautiful, and to rank high among the secondary cities of Europe. Its population is computed at 70,000; and its situation on the Oder renders it well adapted for collecting the manufactures of Silesia, and conveying them to the northward.

'In quitting Breslau, I heard again the answer, though delivered in a low voice to the interrogatory at the gate, "that we were state-prisoners," with the tremendous addition, "and bound to Silberberg." This at once dissipated all my fine dreams of going to Colberg, or being speedily set at liberty. I well knew that Silberberg was a mountain fortress, to the south-west of Breslau, and therefore still farther removed from the sea. — After a stage of about ten miles we halted at a small village, when it was already becoming dark, and having changed our guards made another stage of the same distance to a similar village, where we remained till day-break —

'At day-break we again set off. Hitherto the ground from Breslau had been nearly level, but it now began gradually to ascend, and to be raised by little inequalities. In two stages we arrived at Nimptsch, a curious little town on a steep height, commanded by other surrounding hills which rise above it in succession. From Nimptsch the road was for some distance over an uneven country, until descending into the plain, which lies between these lesser heights and the first ridges of the mountains which separate Silesia from Bohemia. On our route, at a distance of ten or twelve miles, we beheld the fortress of Silberberg crowning the summits and guarding the passes of two contiguous hills.—After some distance the road became execrable, being as we were informed purposely left so, that Silberberg might be considered as the termination of all intercourse. Frequently our waggons sank up to the axle-tree in deep mud, and again were jolted over large stones at the risk of being shattered to pieces. At length we began to ascend, and reached the town of Silberberg, situated on the slope and in a hollow of the hill, about half way up. Its name is derived from a lead mine containing silver formerly worked here. We were detained for upwards of an hour before the door of the Commandant; during which the news of our arrival had time to spread, and the inhabitants collected in great numbers, men, women, and children. — For my own part, my experience at Goldberg had convinced me that no better plan could be adopted than looking on the multitude as much as possible, with a firm and unaltered eye. This called forth more taunts, but it checked the shower of stones. "Behold that rascal, how bold he looks! What, does he call himself an Englishman? Ah! a good torturing will soon make him confess the truth." This, of all their expressions, was the only one which alarmed me, as I did nor know but that such a barbarous mode of examination might still be practised within the walls of Silberberg.'

In the fortress, Mr. S. was lodged, with his French companion, in a vaulted casemate built and floored with brick, where two narrow grated windows scarcely admitted the light. Here his rest at night was taken on a wooden frame, about six feet in breadth, evidently meant for soldiers to sleep on it; and his morning meals consisted of bread and water. At dinner, he was allowed a little soup; and, in the evening, he supped on bread and milk. His exercise consisted, as on board of ship, in walking backwards and forwards over a small space for several hours in a-day. The language of the attendants was civil, but the door was constantly locked, except during short intervals at meals. On the fourth day, the prisoners were removed to a different casemate, of a still less favourable appearance; where, however, they had the comfort of an addition to their society:

'We were met at the entrance by a strange figure, dressed in a flannel night-gown, and who we were told was to be our fellow-prisoner. "Mr. Professor," said our guard, "we have here brought company for you." At hearing the title of Professor, I examined

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our new comrade more closely. I beheld a man of about sixty years of age, rather stout and tall, with a countenance not particularly interesting, and a bald head. Under his dirty flannel-wrapper, appeared a black waistcoat, and he shuffled along in a pair of slippers. In such a dress, and such a situation, who would have expected to see an intimate acquaintance of Bonaparte? I learnt that he was the Abbé Henri, Curate and Professor of Jena, a Frenchman by birth, though long established in Germany, known as the author of several works, and as having lately published a History of the French Language.'

'After the battle of Jena, his office of Curate gave him frequent opportunities of being with Bonaparte, which he did not fail to improve; and by a little dexterous flattery he acquired from him the endowment of a considerable establishment: "Sire," said he to him, "former chiefs have frequently founded large churches for trifling successes; do you now found a small temple for a great victory." The idea pleased; and the church of *Notre Dame de la Victoire* was reared in consequence. This might be flattering to the Professor, but it was no doubt a very galling remembrance to the Prussians; and, having heard the account, I was not at all surprised, in these troubled times, to meet the honest gentleman at the bottom of the ditch of Silberberg.'

In this situation, Mr. Semple and his fellow-prisoners remained, week after week, without knowing the nature of the military events which occurred in their neighbourhood. About the middle of June, they obtained intelligence of the armistice: but every thing around them continued to indicate the bustle of hostile preparations. Numbers of young men composing the *landwehr* of the surrounding districts were exercised under their eyes; and the author had the mortification of being greeted by those juvenile defenders of their country with the hated name of *der spion*, or "the spy." At last, on the 8th of July, he had the satisfaction of seeing two English gentlemen, Mr. Hobhouse and the Hon. Douglas Kinnaird, arrive and alight at the Commandant's house. They had heard of his confinement, and called to inquire into his case: they wrote in his behalf; and though they could not accomplish his release, they procured for him from the Commandant the liberty of walking about the square. This led him to an acquaintance with some officers confined in the fortress as prisoners of war, from one of whom he had ample reports of Bonaparte's disastrous campaign of Moscow:

'This officer's regiment of Hulans had been constantly with the advanced guard under Murat, and out of twelve hundred and fifty men, of which it originally consisted, nearly a thousand had already fallen, or were in the hospital before quitting Moscow. For six days before entering that city he had eaten horse-flesh, which was his sole food for sixty-two days on the retreat; and had already paid a ducat for a

half beer-glass of common spirits. From the day of crossing the Niemen, during the whole of the march, not a dozen peasants were seen on either side of the route. Every thing was burnt up, destroyed, or removed. At the battle of Smolensko, the infantry alone were at first engaged, the cavalry on both sides lining the opposite banks of the river, in separate squadrons for a long distance, to prevent a surprise on either flank. But in the battle of Mojaisk, or Borodino, the cavalry had a large part. There he had two horses killed under him. Nothing can be said sufficient to give an idea of the horrors of that battle. The French troops, contrary to their usual custom, fought in a mournful silence. Cavalry and infantry, Cossacks and artillery, all were mixed together in the promiscuous carnage. The battle began at four in the morning, and the last cannon-shot was fired about nine at night. So difficult, however, is it to acquire the knowledge of truth, even from respectable eye-witnesses of great events, that he positively affirmed the French to have remained masters of the field. In proof of this, he alleged that his regiment continued on the ground that night, and was put in march at four o'clock next morning for Moscow. Doubtless, acting as captain of cavalry, enveloped in dust, and in perpetual motion, he could not properly judge of the great movements of the armies, and had mistaken a flank march for a direct advance in front. Yet, it is often on these partial views, that men are most positive in their opinions. At Moscow, the army found cloth, and at first plenty of coffee, chocolate, wine, furs, and luxuries, but little or no flour. Soon every thing became enormously dear. Long before the retreat began, subordination was lost amongst the troops, and it was the general opinion, that Bonaparte had been deceived by an appearance of negotiation, to lose so much time at Moscow. — It is impossible, by any description, to exaggerate the horrors of the retreat. It was three hundred thousand men put to suffer all that human nature could endure without entire destruction. His horses all died, and he was obliged to walk in the severity of the cold with his feet nearly bare. He saw forty louis given for a place in a common cart, for a distance of thirty miles; and a General, after making a bargain of that kind, being benumbed by the cold, was pushed out by common soldiers who had previously occupied the seats, and left to perish on the road. — Both he and Perregaux, a brother officer, talked with great contempt of the Cossacks, whom they agreed in affirming to be wholly useless in battles, and by no means remarkable for their bravery in skirmishes and single combats. Their great qualities are their cunning, their skill in concealing themselves, and suddenly assembling on given points, the intimate knowledge which they acquire of a country, and their unwearied patience. By these qualities they surround an enemy's army, as it were by an invisible line, interrupt his communications, and make prisoners perpetually.'

Mr. S.'s confinement lasted till the end of July, by which time answers were received to the letters written to London in his behalf, and he was released. Taking leave of his fellow-prisoners, he proceeded to the allied head-quarters at Reichenbach, where he was highly pleased with the magnificent

ficent appearance of the Russian guards. Having agreed to travel to Berlin with an English gentleman bound homewards, he left Reichenbach ten days before the recommencement of hostilities.

'We travelled for about ten miles over a continually uneven country to Nimptsch, which I saw now with very different feelings, and under very different circumstances than when I passed through it on my way to Silberberg. The principal street was now lined with Russian guards, and the number of inhabitants collected and looking out of the windows announced something extraordinary. We soon learnt that the Emperor Alexander was in the town, and the King of Prussia expected to arrive every moment. We had not accordingly waited above ten minutes when his carriage drove up. The Emperor was in waiting to receive him, and we saw the two monarchs embrace. The tall thin figure of the King of Prussia, and his military air, contrasted with the mild countenance and plump person of the Emperor, upon whose head the hair begins already to be thinly scattered. Pleased with having been such near witnesses of this interview, we continued our journey about half-past six in a small waggon, which gave us hardly room to stretch out our limbs. The road as before was over a continued succession of hill and dale, until from the last heights we saw the plains of Breslau, and the fertile country watered by the Oder, spread out beneath us like the sea. Here I turned and took a last view of the fortress of Silberberg, still visible behind us on the summit of the mountains.'

It had been remarked by Mr. S., in his former journey, that to the eastward of Saxony the language of the peasantry partook so much of the Slavonic, that a Russian courier had little difficulty in making himself understood. The taste of the buildings likewise bespoke a difference from the western part of Germany. All the way, during his journey from Reichenbach, harvest was going on; and, instead of a sickle, the country-people made use of a scythe with a kind of cradle. At Berlin, he had an opportunity of seeing the unfortunate General Moreau, who was then on his way to the head-quarters of the allies. This distinguished commander was very plainly dressed, and his countenance, rather swarthy, had in it very little that was striking, except a breadth of forehead. His age was fifty-two; and the thinness of his hair had the effect of making the marks of time more apparent. — After having visited Potsdam and the tomb of Frederick II., Mr. S. pursued his journey northward in the direction of Stralsund and Gottenburg, and reached London in the beginning of September.

On the style of this little volume we have nothing new to observe. A hint which we threw out, in a late notice of a tract by Mr. Semple, (Rev. Vol. lxviii. p. 164.) against attempts at high-flown effusions, appears not to have been lost on him; the diction of the present performance being of that plain and unassuming

assuming character which befits the narrative of a traveller. The detail of his arrest and confinement is also creditably given, in a subdued tone; and as Mr. S. leaves the circumstances, which certainly are rather peculiar, to the judgment of the reader, we shall follow his example.

ART. XI. *The Campaign*, a Poem; in Commemoration of the glorious Battles of Vittoria and the Pyrenees. By John Gwilliam, Author of "The Battles of the Danube and Barrosa," &c. Royal 8vo. pp. 195. Boards. Jennings. 1813.

ADDISON wrote a poem intitled *The Campaign*, dedicated to John Churchill, the great Duke of Marlborough, in celebration of the splendid series of victories which signalized our arms under that General. It is also a circumstance worthy of notice that, in the reign of Queen Anne, the situation of continental politics was in some respects similar to that in which they have for some years past been placed by the all-grasping ambition of France; and that the powers of Europe then looked up to England for the protection of their liberties. Addison thus sings:

> "To *Britain*'s Queen the nations turn their eyes;
> On her resolves the western world relies,
> Confiding still amidst its dire alarms
> In ANNA's councils, and in CHURCHILL's arms.
> Thrice happy *Britain*, from the kingdoms rent,
> To sit the guardian of the Continent."

Now, as then, Britain "sits the guardian of the Continent;" and her insular situation and naval strength have afforded her means of resisting the encroachments of Bonaparte, of rousing prostrate governments from their degraded state, and of seconding their efforts for recovering their independence. So far, we are intitled to rank as the first European nation; on the score also of military enterprize and glory, our fame was never higher than it is at this present moment. The victories of Marlborough, which "stained with blood the Danube and the Rhine," are paralleled by those of the Marquis of Wellington in the Peninsula, whose well-earned praise all ranks unite in proclaiming:

> ——— "*plauditque Senator,*
> *Votaque patricio certant plebeio favori.*"

While, however, we recognize a Marlborough in a Wellington, we do not trace all the features of an Addison (we mean, as far as the professed subject of this poem is concerned,) in a Gwilliam. In Addison's *Campaign*,

" ——— sieges and storms appear
The wars and conquests of th' important year;"

so that

" An Iliad rises out of one campaign:"

but Mr. Gwilliam, though he assumes a very comprehensive title, restricts his efforts to the description of only a part of the exploits of our great hero during the last year. Still, though Mr. G. confines himself to an exhibition of the details of only two battles, (without adverting to " storms and sieges,)" we must do him the justice to allow that the ardour of our brave combatants has inspired him with true poetic feeling, and that the conflicts are not only very minutely but very energetically pourtrayed.

As the stanzas allotted to a delineation of the battle of Vittoria occupy one hundred and four pages, much repetition of description, sentiment, and rhyme, may be supposed to occur. Flags, standards, banners, and pennons, with the red-cross, fly in many a line; while trumpets and bugles, drums, fifes, and cymbals, sound with equal repetition. In truth, Mr. G. affords in this poem too much detail; and though we have perused it with considerable satisfaction, we think that it would have been improved by compression. To make his battle-pieces complete, he combines the surrounding landscape; and he endeavours, as far as verbal delineation can effect this object, to place his readers on the very scene of action. In this respect, he has great merit, as will be evident even from the following stanzas, in which the advance of the enemy at Vittoria is described:

' It was a sight, on which the mind
Might ponder free and unconfin'd,
Where man, to secret passions blind,
Might chain his reasoning powers,—
And ask for what stupendous cause,
Heav'n gave the world its hallow'd laws,
While war his ruin showers.
It was a scene as grand and bright,
As ever met th' enthusiast's sight,
Beyond the muse's art to tell,
The painter's skill to yield,—
When o'er the plain, and through the dell,
The Gallic lines were seen to swell,
All marshall'd for the field:
It was as fair, as vast a scene,
As ever grac'd a battle-green,
As ever met the raptur'd eye,
Of Heaven-illumin'd poesy;
Here clustering rose the bayonets—there
The banners cleave the sultry air,

And

And darken half the plain;
While floods of intermingling light,
Burst on the long-distracted sight,
And every eye detain—
As when across the vault of night,
The nor hern glories beam,
Casting abroad their radiance bright,
In many a starry stream.

'Nine times the clouds, with dismal sound,
Return'd the battle's knell,
Darkness invested half the ground,
The Sun appear'd from Heav'n to bound,
And bid the world farewell:
Nine times the clock's unseemly note
Was heard upon the breeze to float,
The distant hills between,
Where not as yet the cannon's roar
Had marr'd the rural scene,
And not a sabre drank the gore
Of those who bravely fought before,
On Talavera's green;
Nine times from many a convent tower,
Murmur'd the dull and sluggard hour,
Brake, wood, and glen, and mountain way
Where many a lurking squadron lay,
Return'd the slowly-measur'd sound,
Upon the wearied ear,
And told the storm was gathering round,
The gloom of battle near;—
That giant combat dark and dread,
Where Havoc, stalking o'er the dead,
And waving high his pennon red,
And blood-encrusted spear,
Smiles on the valiant, as they tread
O'er many a cold eternal bed,
To Valour's spirit dear.'

The poet, having shewn the positions and march of the enemy, celebrates the genius and prowess of the British hero in disconcerting the plans of the French General, and overwhelming him with defeat:

'But Wellesley, undeceiv'd, foresaw
The error France had made,
And scorn'd from her attempts to draw
His martial cavalcade:
His keen and all-discerning eye
Beheld the banners floating high
Of enterprising Spain:
And saw, beneath the low'ring sky,
The Britons cross the plain,

To check the Gauls as thence they fly,
Now flying thence in vain!
Fierce and incessant was the fire
That smote the distant wood,
Now rolling deep, now mounting high'r,
It spread its devastation dire,
Where Spain unshaken stood;
Where hundreds, unperceiv'd, expire,
Whom other bands succeed,
Who for their country's fame desire
No brighter, worthier meed,
Than, 'midst the battle's darkest ire,
In Glory's arms to bleed.
But harass'd with the pealing wrath
Of Gallia's ambush'd skill,
The Spanish bands broke nobly forth,
(Fierce as the tempest of the North,)
To gain the distant hill;
Thus they,—while jealous of the foe,
The footmen from the grounds below,
Assail'd the heights with rapid tread,
And there the cross of Albion spread,
Amidst the remnants of the dead,
Of many a dark and swarthy son,
(Already with the toil foredone,)
Of Portugal and Spain;
Men who, by honor warm, defied
The Tyrant and his upstart pride,—
Who to no fear, no lust allied,
Oppression dare disdain;—
Who, burning with the ancient zeal
That crush'd the Moorish band,
Feel as the virtuous ought to feel—
And rather die than basely seal
The glory of their land,
To all the foul inhuman deeds,
Where France presides, and Freedom bleeds
Beneath her Despot's hand.'—

'Twas glorious in that dreadful strife
Where Fame was wrestling hard with life,
To see in native ardour strong,
The Britons sweep the plain along—
The Spanish squadrons stand,—
Meeting on many a low'ring height,
The charge of Gallia's bayonets bright,
A firm, unshaken band!
Crushing beneath their steady rage,
The terrors of this coward age,
Whose swords with murder glare:
Who o'er Germania's plains have trod,
The puppets of an upstart god,

Waving

Waving th' inexorable rod
Of slaughter and despair.
Blasting beneath their sulph'ry feet
Each heavenly bliss — each prospect sweet,
The virgin kiss — the tender sigh
Of love, and heav'n-born sympathy, —
The rapture of affection's glance,
That holds some kindred soul in trance,
To Lovers only known;
That tells their inward joys, their fears,
And gives to all their glowing tears,
Bliss—felt by them alone.'

Mr. G. relates the preparations on both sides for battle, the onset, the several attacks and repulses of the enemy, and at last their complete discomfiture. He then undertakes a sketch of the field of battle after the victory:

'But who shall paint the various grief,
Where none was near to yield relief;
The cutting thoughts that crowd the mind,
(For wives and children left behind,)—
Of those whom Hope had left a prey
To dark Suspense, and pale Dismay?
Who, fighting for their country's weal,
Had fallen beneath a Despot's steel?
Who, conscious of their fate discern'd
Their worldly prospects all o'erturn'd—
Their children crush'd beneath the storm
That clouds their azure sky;
And, weltering in the carnage warm,
Unhear'd, unpitied, die!
Say, who shall paint that various scene—
The horrors of Vittoria's green?
Who tell the woes where many fought,
And glory with their life-blood bought;
The wreath, adorn'd with every charm,
That nerves the Warrior's potent arm?
Who shall describe the falling gloom,
Suspended o'er the Warrior's tomb,
When, sword to sword, the Champions met,
And sabre clash'd with bayonet?
When, round the field, the cymbal clang,
In wild and wilder echoes rang—
The moans, the cries, the fires that swept
The shatter'd forms of those who slept—
The sleep that never ends; —
Where courage long and loudly wept,
And still her awful vigil kept,
Amidst her slaughter'd friends?'

Exulting in the overthrow of Bonaparte's atrocious projects respecting Spain, the poet apostrophizes this long disturber of

Europe, and tells him that the hour of retribution will come: but Mr. G. was not aware, when he wrote, though he saw the tide turning, that this hour was so near as it now seems to be. We copy the passage:

> 'Unpitying man! tho' far the hour
> Of retribution seem to lower,
> Though Fortune, with a lavish hand,
> Hath stript for thee each prosp'rous land,
> And all their various riches thrown
> Around thy black and guilty throne;
> Tho' heaven, in mercy, may have view'd
> Kingdoms and states by thee subdued,
> Burning beneath thy cursed power,
> Still, Tyrant! shall the heavy hour
> Of retribution come,
> And seal, in some disastrous night,
> Amidst thy hopes and visions bright,
> Thy sublunary doom?
> Then, then in spite of all thy art,
> Shall Truth's tremendous voice impart,
> (Truth whom the Tyrant cannot crush,
> Whose stubborn voice no threat can hush,
> Truth, who shall live in other times,
> To paint thy foul and impious crimes,)
> That thou and peace were never meant,
> To reign beneath one firmament,
> But that a pest to all the world,
> Amidst thy bloody bans unfurl'd,
> Thou shou'd'st not know a moment's rest,
> With all thy worldly pelf possess'd,—
> One moment unreleas'd with care,
> Distrust, and fear, and fell despair!
> Yes, Tyrant! thou shalt keenly feel
> The wrath of Mercy's slumbering steel,
> And, reft of all the pomp and pow'r,
> Call, in misfortune's darkest hour,
> On Heaven to sooth the pangs that start
> The sinews of thy lab'ring heart:
> But thou shalt plead in vain,—nor see
> The hand of mercy stretch'd to thee!
> None, in that dark and pressing hour,
> None, Tyrant, then shall have the pow'r
> To mitigate thy woe:—
> Thy cohorts then shall lose their might,
> Thy flatterers curse the hideous sight,
> And shun thee as their foe!'

The second poem, on the battle of the Pyrenees, is not written in the irregular ode-stanza, but in old-fashioned heroic verse; in which Mr. Gwilliam manifests the same fervour, and transfuses

transfuses the glow of the combat into the lines which describe it:

'Now rag'd the slaughtering fight through all the line,
And sudden splendour marks the vast design;
Along the hills Britannia's symbols glow,
And Spain's bright ensigns crowd the plain below;
Loud on the ear the distant thunders roll,
String every nerve, and warm th' aspiring soul;
On every point the cause of Freedom blooms,
Save where, envelop'd in the sulphury glooms,
The Lusian heroes from the scene retire,
Still baffling Gaul's infuriated ire:
Great in disaster, and resolv'd to *bear*
The toils and disappointments of the *war*,
Once more they venture on the fierce attack,
Regain the heights, and drive th' invaders back,—
Down the red slopes the haughty rebels swarm,
And fly in vain the fury of the storm,
On every side their mangled bodies lie,
To charm the evening wolf's rapacious eye.

'Now all the skies, as far as eye could bound,
Shook with th' artillery's terror-speaking sound,
Long crimson streams, with sulphury vapour blent,
Rush o'er the hills, and cloud the firmament;
From height to height the hideous battle swells,
Here Britain yields, and here the Gaul repels;
The higher spirits urge the swift advance,
And, in their fury, crush aspiring France;
Four sev'ral times her vaunting bands recede,
Four sev'ral times th' enormous masses bleed.
Intrepid Ross, improvident of life,
Flies thro' the lines, and leads th' inveterate strife,
Breaks every barrier that obstructs his way,
And fills the flying Frenchmen with dismay!'

Marshal Soult is here called 'the Great *Avatar*:' but we do not perceive the propriety of the term, nor can we sanction the allusion to the mythology of the Hindoos; and in representing Soult as an incarnation of Brama, the author compliments him far beyond his merits. To the praise so richly earned by our own illustrious Commander, with which this poem concludes, we turn with pleasure; and no reader can doubt that the eulogy of the writer will be echoed with grateful enthusiasm by that country which the hero has delivered from its ferocious invaders:

'Spain, thou hast triumph'd! but to whom belong
Your warmest *prāyērs*, and your sweetest song?—
On whom would Spain her laurel-wreath bestow
But Him, who conquer'd and destroyed her foe?
Already, conscious of his high renown,
She weaves with joy the honorary crown;

Already, lavish of reward, she sends
Her praise as far as Nature's realm extends:
Earth, Ocean, Air, seem busy to record
The high achievements of his dauntless sword,—
The very skies with rapture lean to hear
The splendid story of his late career,—
From cloud to cloud the pleasing story flies,
And Heaven itself receives it from the skies,
E'en angels here it from their blissful reign,
And bless the Hero and the Friend of Spain!
But further conquests his career await
In Spain's proud realm, and her contiguous state,
Fields of new glory open to his sight,
And fill the space with visions of delight:
Oh! may no squeamish thought, no deadly feud,
Destroy the great the universal good,
Hush'd be the voice that dares despair of Spain,
Or think the conquests of her sons in vain:
She yet shall triumph o'er her neighb'ring foes,
Her fortunes still on Wellington repose,
And he, distinguish'd by her choice, shall stand
The pride — the glory of her blissful land,
That future ages with delight may read,
He was her Saviour in her hour of need!'

Some false quantities, and some very unrhyming rhymes, have occurred to our notice in the perusal of these poems: but the author has improved since his former appearance.

ART. XII. *Remarks on Several Parts of Turkey.* Part I. Ægyptiaca, or some Account of the Antient and Modern State of Egypt, as obtained in the Years 1801, 1802. By William Hamilton, Esq., F.A.S. Accompanied with Etchings, from original Drawings taken on the Spot, by the late Charles Hayes, of the Royal Engineers. 4to. and folio Plates. 4l. 4s. Boards. Payne.

WE have too long omitted to pay our respects to this very learned and scientific volume: but, as we never intended to neglect it, so we will not, late as our report of it now comes, allow ourselves to discard it altogether from our pages. We call it a learned and scientific volume, and such it certainly is: yet we question whether it be calculated for the entertainment of those who are the principal perusers of travels. The antiquary, indeed, will here find ample gratification of his favourite taste; and the classical reader will examine with curiosity the refutation or the confirmation of the records of Herodotus and of Strabo: but, when the author declares his intention of furnishing a supplement to the valuable memoirs of Pocock, Norden, Volney,

Volney, Sonnini, Denon, and Wilson *; we cannot consider that intention as fulfilled by the work before us. It bears no similarity to any of the above-mentioned performances; and if it be more precise than any of them, it is proportionably dry and detailed. Viewed, however, in its own proper character, that of a guide to the antiquarian traveller, and of a remembrancer to the scholar, it is an interesting and useful production. To those readers, also, who prefer a sustained dignity and respectability of manner to a more natural and easy style, it will offer an additional attraction. Here is no offensive egotism; and, on the other hand, very little reality of scene and narrative. We are not tired with Mr. Hamilton's personal adventures: but, again, we scarcely travel with him at all. He is more like the calm reflector in his closet, than the wanderer on the banks of the Nile. This method obviously has its advantages as well as its defects: we are inclined to suppose that the correctness of such a writer is equal to his coldness; and we rely on the information which we have received, although we have but a feeble sympathy with our informant.

Mr. H. did not originally intend his remarks for the press: but, having waited several years for the account of Egypt which was promised by the French government, and having seen proofs of a general wish in the literary world for some more detailed description of the antiquities of Upper Egypt than had hitherto been afforded, 'he felt himself in some measure excused in stepping forward to supply this want, to the best of his means.' Nothing can be more modest than this enunciation of the author's motives for publication, and the same chasteness of feeling pervades the whole volume. The first chapter is occupied with an account of the State of Egypt in the Autumn of 1801; and it affords, we are sorry to observe, but too complete a confirmation of our previous opinions, as to the impolitic conduct pursued by our victorious army (or rather the directors of its operations) towards both parties, whether Turks or Mamalukes, then contending for power in Egypt. We seem (although Mr. Hamilton passes as delicately as he can over this unfortunate business) to have lost, by our *indecision*, all that we had gained by our skill and valour. Our influence as mediators between the Porte and the Beys was too great not to be acknowleged and courted by all who were concerned in the contest; yet the result has been, that all the advantages of this commanding situation have served only to

* The magnificent Description of Egypt since begun to be published by the French government seems likely to be much delayed in its continuation.

ruin

ruin entirely the cause of those whom we secretly encouraged, and to shake in a great measure the veneration entertained for English honour by those whose side we publicly espoused. Subsequent events, however, and better management, have in part redeemed our national character with the present masters of Egypt; while those who contended for that mastery are effectually prevented from reproaching us with our vacillation, or want of faith towards themselves. — We turn from so embarrassing a topic to matters of less general interest, but of more satisfaction to an English mind, whether it be that of the scholar, the antiquary, or the traveller.

Among the principal objects of curiosity described by the present author, are the state of Egypt above the Cataracts; with the antiquities above Es Souan, and between that place and Thebes. He then proceeds to remark on the detached villages which form the chief remaining portion of this once illustrious city, as they did indeed in the time of Strabo. He next furnishes us with an account of Dendera; and of his voyage from Dendera to the northern frontier of the Thebaïd, and to Alyi. We have also another voyage across the Oxyrynchite Nome to the Bahhr Jousouf; and another from Benisouef to Cairo, Memphis, and the Pyramids. The travels conclude with a tour round the Delta from Rosetta to Cairo; and thence to Damietta, Rahmanie, and Alexandria. Interpersed are some observations on the state of Egypt, while it was a province of the Roman empire; and subjoined to the whole are an appendix and postscript. The former contains some apposite citations and illustrations of passages in Herodotus, Strabo, Diodorus Siculus, and Pliny, with an extract from the Itinerary of Antonine, or (as Mr.H. stiffly calls him) Antoninus Augustus; and some farther statistical information respecting Egypt in general. The P. S. offers a transcript and a translation of the Greek inscription on the trilinguar stone found at Rosetta. —The book is accompanied, as stated in the title, by etchings taken on the spot by the late Charles Hayes, of the Royal Engineers; and to the memory of this accomplished friend, Mr. Hamilton pays an affectionate tribute in his preface. The productions of that friend's pencil which illustrate the *Ægyptiaca* are numerous; and (as we understand from those who are qualified to judge) they form correct representations of the most remarkable antiquities in Egypt. We entirely admit Mr. H.'s apology for the imperfect state in which they appear, considered as specimens of the art. The price of his volume is thus considerably diminished; and we have the drawings really as they were taken on the spot. — We shall now proceed to quote some of the most striking passages of the work.

One

One of the leading traits in this traveller's character seems to be a very praise-worthy inclination to render justice to those who have preceded him in the difficult task of exploring and recording the curiosities of Egypt, and the adjoining regions. Speaking of the disturbed and dangerous state of the country, which prevented him from prosecuting his journey southward, he says:

'Under these disappointments, we could not help rendering the homage due to the memory of the immortal Bruce, and to his successors Park, Browne, and others; who, regardless of these and other more serious difficulties, did yet boldly advance forward in the search of knowledge, and have done honour to their country by the discoveries they have made: alone, unprotected, and in distant climes, labouring under excessive heat, fatigue, and sickness, their thirst for inquiry carried them on, and their strength of mind enabled them to return to reap the fruit of their labours in the esteem and gratitude of their countrymen: *Admirandi magis quàm imitandi.*'

In a subsequent passage, in which the author is mentioning one of the Ababdé Arabs, who are the proprietors of the country about Ombos, and who are in the habit of escorting the Sennaar caravan across the desert, we find another tribute to the memory of Bruce; who, indeed, with some few exceptions, seems annually to be acquiring fresh testimony to his merits:

'His name was Hadgi Hamid, and in the course of conversation he told me, that he very well remembered his father's returning with a Sennaar caravan several years ago, accompanied by a Frank of the name of Yacoube, whom I instantly knew to be the indefatigable Bruce. Ten years ago this would have been an important coincidence, to arrest the incredulity of the public as to the veracity of this celebrated traveller. But during this period a mass of successive evidence has defeated the unbelievers. Hadgi Hamid having conducted several caravans, and being always paid in kind according to a fixed rate, by certain proportions of the different articles *, is become a rich man, and has large magazines of goods at Deroo.'

In Mr. Hamilton's description of the sepulchres of the antient Theban kings, however, we perceive a very considerable variation from the account of Bruce; and, as this difference exists on a subject on which even the veracity of that traveller has been exposed to much suspicion, we shall make an extract bearing on the point, and shewing how far the censure is

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'* The Caravan from the South brings gum, slaves, tamarinds, feathers, rhinoceros' horns, ivory, gold-dust, &c.; on its return it takes amber, cloth, clothes, sword-blades, iron coats of mail, mirrors, and trinkets, cloves, pepper, &c.'

deserved.

deserved. After some remarks on the Egyptian religion *, which, combined with the previous reflections on the mythology of Egypt, (at pages 58, 59.) excite a very interesting train of thought in the mind of the observant reader, the author thus proceeds:

'On visiting the sepulchre, which contains the representation of The Harpers, first given in Bruce's Travels, and which is much the largest of all, we found that the character which his drawing has given of this subject very much flatters the original. There is indeed considerable expression and elegance in these figures, but by no means that pure Grecian taste which that indefatigable traveller has given them. The harps are of a very handsome form, and richly painted on the stucco, but the ornaments are exclusively in the Egyptian character. However unequal the originals are to Mr. Bruce's representation of them, he deserves at least the thanks of the lovers of antiquity for having first opened our eyes to the true merit of Egyptian artists, and for having ventured to oppose the notion so generally entertained, of their being incapable of executing, either with the chisel or the pencil, other than rude and shapeless figures. It may not be uninteresting to add, that these harpers are standing in front of a male and female figure, who appear to be the king and queen, decked in the usual emblems of soveignty and divinity; and at their side appear two figures of Osiris, one with a hawk's, the other with a human head. I do not know that the dogmas of Egyptian superstition entitle us to consider this picture as emblematic of the celestial gratifications awarded to the exemplary life of the monarch, whose remains are here deposited, or whether it was intended solely to pourtray the favourite pursuit of the mortal. †

'The solemnity of the place where it is found; the peculiar grace and animation with which the harpers appear to be touching their strings; the circumstance of the sovereigns being *seated* in the presence of the divinity, might tempt one to give the former illustration to the subject, flattering as it would be to the unrevealed religion of the Egyptians: but we are as yet so ignorant even of the popular doctrines of the Isiac mythology, that we cannot pretend to ascertain those higher parts of it which contained their notions of the state of our existence in a future life.'

We are presented with a full, and we doubt not a very accurate, account of the two colossal statues near Thebes, called by some the Statues of Memnon, at pages 168—174. Mr. Hamilton agrees with Pococke in fixing on the northern-most of the two statues as that

"*Dimidio magicæ resonant ubi Memnone chordæ.*"

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* Πρῶτοι δὲ καὶ τόνδε τὸν λόγον Αἰγυπτιοι ἰσὶ ἰστόρεες, ὡς ἀνθρώπου ψυχὴ ἀθανατός ἐστι. Herod. ii. 123.

'† Virgil seems to allude to a belief of this kind, when, in the sixth book of the Æneid, he describes the happy shades of the good as

. . . . . "Per herbam
Vescentes, lætumque choro pæana canentes."'

Indeed,

Indeed, the circumstance of the numerous names inscribed on the legs and feet of this statue, and the declarations that the sound or voice of Memnon was heard about sunrise, by many of those who made the inscriptions, seem to ascertain the point beyond reasonable dispute. Strabo visited the statue, and heard the voice, (see his 17th book,) but his name is not found among the other inscriptions.

We must now, in regard to our limits, pass over a very large space in the Ægyptiaca, and refer to another popular subject; namely, the account given by Mr. Hamilton of the celebrated monument near Alexandria, called Pompey's Pillar. The passage is creditable to the research and ingenuity of the traveller:

'On my return to Alexandria, I had the good fortune to be a fellow-labourer in the assiduous and finally successful endeavours to decypher the Greek inscription engraven on the granite pedestal of the monument which has hitherto been called, and which will probably continue to be called, Pompey's Pillar. After visiting it for several days successively at the most favourable hour, when the rays of the sun first struck obliquely on the plane of the letters, we obtained the following lines, which appear to fix the date of the erection of the column to the reign of Diocletian:

'ΤΟ.....ΩΤΑΤΟΝΑΥΤΟΚΡΑΤΟΡΑ
ΤΟΝΠΟΛΙΟΥΧΟΝΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑΣ
ΔΙΟΚΛΗΤΙΑΝΟΝΤΟΝΑ.....ΤΟΝ
. . .
ΠΟ.....ΕΠΑΡΧΟΣΑΙΓΥΠΤΙΟΥ
.....

'This emperor had in more than one instance merited the grateful remembrance of the Alexandrians, particularly in granting them a public allowance of corn, to the extent of two millions of medimni: and when, after he had taken the city by siege, which had revolted against the emperor, he checked the fury of his soldiers in the promiscuous massacre of the citizens *. The incorrect proportions and character of the mouldings in the pedestal of this column, as well as the bad taste in which the capital is executed, sufficiently attest the degraded state of the arts at the time when the monument was erected.

'The imperfect word in the first line may have been τιμιωτατον: that in the third line has been, I believe, ascertained by a succeeding traveller; that in the fourth, being the name of the præfect, may be πομπαιος, ποπαιος, or ποπλιος; and the last line was probably either καὶ ἡ πόλις ἐυεργέτην, or καὶ ὁ δῆμος ἐυεργέτην, such being a common termination of inscriptions of this form, and the word ἱστῆσι or ἀνέθετο was in almost all such cases understood.'

As we are unable at present to admit farther extracts from this elaborate volume, we must be contented with pointing out

* See the letter of Captains Leake and Squire, in the 15th volume of the British Archæologia.' Also M. Rev. Vol. lv. N. S. p. 281.

to the observation of the scholar and the antiquary some of the interesting topics of discussion which are scientifically treated by Mr. Hamilton.

The inquiry into the state of art and science in Egypt, during its most flourishing periods, which is resumed in various parts of the work, demands particular attention; and in this recommendation we must join the conjectures as to the place of the famous Nilometer of Syene; the description of the sculptures at the Temple at Luxor, or El Qhussr; (Anglicè, "The Ruins;") that of the great Temple of Venus or Isis at Dendera; the remarks on the state of property, agriculture, &c. in Egypt under the Roman government; the account of the mode of embalming dead bodies; and the description of the Pyramids. — The general reader will be amused and instructed (although we confess that the entertainment of the volume is not equal to its utility) by numerous other passages. The observations on the two prevalent disorders in Egypt, viz. the plague and the ophthalmia, are curious and useful; especially the facts relating to vaccination as a supposed antidote to the plague. The caution respecting the Turkish dragomen or interpreters cannot be too frequently impressed on our countrymen. The remarks on the state of Egypt after the expulsion of the French again recall us to the mortifying subject which is discussed in the first chapter.

So long a time has elapsed since the publication of the *Ægyptiaca*, that we fear it will be to little purpose if we remind Mr. Hamilton that this volume forms only a portion of his 'Remarks on several Parts of Turkey.' If, however, his portfolio should contain materials for a second part of his travels, we cannot help urging him to redeem his pledge to the learned world; and to increase his literary reputation, which we feel confident would be increased, by such a measure. — We now bid him adieu, with sincere thanks for the valuable information which he has here afforded.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JANUARY, 1814.

NAVAL AFFAIRS.

Art. 13. *An Elementary Treatise on the Mounting of Naval Ordnance;* shewing the true Principles of Construction for the Carriages of every Species of Ordnance, so as to obtain the Power of Working the heaviest Metal with the fewest Hands; with the least possible Strain to the Ship; and with Reference to every other Desideratum, which can possibly enter into the Combination;

demonstrated by a Variety of Diagrams and Copper-plates. By Lieut. Col. William Congreve, A.M., F.R.S., and Equerry to H. R. H. the Prince Regent; to whom this Treatise is, by Permission, humbly dedicated. 4to. 10s. 6d. Boards. Egerton.

In the first section of this volume, the author treats 'on the great importance of adopting in this country the same spirit of the economy of labour in our military mechanism, which has so long signalized our commercial establishments,' and chiefly directs the reader's attention to these two points, the manning of a greater number of ships than we have at present with a given number of seamen, and the employing of guns of such calibres on board of merchantmen as would enable them in a great measure to bid defiance to privateers. The second section contains an 'enumeration of the differents objects, which must be combined in every important improvement of the system of mounting ordnance for the sea-service, and of the general principles on which these advantages are to be accomplished.' The objects are thus stated:

'I. To reduce the labour of working the ordnance, without increasing the bulk and weight of the carriage.—II. To produce a smooth and uniform recoil; and further, to limit the recoil, without straining the breeching, to the least possible quantity required for loading the gun inside.—III. To produce the least possible shock in bringing up the gun, and to apply the breeching so that it may in all positions of the carriage have an equal bearing.—IV. To increase the power of traversing the gun, without increasing the size of the ports; nay, further, even to reduce the actual aperture of the port, with this increased quantity of traverse.—V. To give greater security to the men in action.—VI. To render the gun capable of better security in housing.—VII. To present less surface to the enemy's fire.—VIII. To keep the decks freer and drier than in the present mode.—IX. And to combine these points without increasing the expense.'

Col. Congreve rejects, and apparently with reason, what is vulgarly though perhaps improperly called the *non-recoil principle*, or the practice of keeping the carriage fastened to the vessel's side in such a manner that neither it nor the gun can recoil, as calculated to overstrain and injure the sides of even the strongest ships; and he contends for the propriety and advantage of dividing the mass of the carriage into two parts, and making the gun recoil with the upper and lighter on the lower and by far the heavier part, which is kept fixed. This method has long been used with carronades, as well as in gun-boats and batteaux.—A considerable part of this section refers to the traversing of guns on board of vessels: but sailors, particularly in the heat of action, generally fire right before them, without attending much if at all to the traversing of the guns, or to the adjusting of the breeching commonly called *middling*, which then becomes necessary; and the rudder is rendered subservient to keeping the ship in a position favourable for this expeditious mode of firing.

The Colonel's method of making the breeching of each gun proceed from one point, equally distant from the sides of the port, is simpler and in various respects better than the common method of making

making it proceed from two points in the ship's side; and, by assuming that point for the centre of traverse which is not only at equal distances from the sides of the port but also half way between the outside and inside of it, the gun may be traversed to right and left in a greater angle than it can be when the point is taken in the side of the ship within the port.

Section III. contains 'descriptions of the different constructions of gun and carronade carriages, which have been made according to the principles laid down in the second.' The lower carriage is prevented from recoiling when the gun is fired, by means of a strong iron-arm which is fixed to it, swivelling on a bolt placed in the centre of the port, and thus causing it, when necessary, to traverse. The Colonel would run the guns out by means of short levers, about two feet long, and holes in the peripheries of the trucks, which he places on the trunnions with interior rockets and teeth in which small palls are to work and prevent them from turning freely as the gun recoils; while they are allowed to turn as freely as possible when it is running out.—This complex machinery will certainly lessen the extent of the recoil: but, instead of making use of it, we conceive that it would be better to add the weight of the lower carriage to that of the metal of the gun: for of all things of this kind, and more especially in the affairs of war, the simplest are generally the most commodious.

The fourth and last section contains 'a summary view of the general advantages of the foregoing system of mounting naval ordnance, and of the circumstances from which these advantages arise.'

Undoubtedly, this short work contains various useful hints with regard to the mounting of naval ordnance: but some parts of it are deficient in perspicuity, and in correctness of expression.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 14. *Sermons*, by the Rev. J. Grant, M.A., of St. John's College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 417. 10s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard. 1812.

Three reasons are assigned by Mr. G., in a short preface, for the publication of these sermons, viz. 'a hope of their being serviceable beyond the sphere where they were first delivered; the solicitation of respectable friends; and the view of enabling myself to complete the publication of the History of the English Church.' How far his success in this publication will assist him in finishing another which he has already on the stocks, we presume not to ascertain: but we should suppose, on account of the multitude of sermons already in the market, that he cannot reckon on any large sale. As serious practical discourses, however, his compositions have considerable merit, and may be read with much advantage in the closet, or to pious families assembled for domestic worship on Sunday-evenings. Twenty sermons are contained in this volume, on the following subjects: Motives to Duty—Experience—Cultivating a serious Frame of Mind—Christian Patriotism—A defective Service of God—The Christian Race—The right Government of Thought—The Fall of the Leaf—Gradations in future Happiness or Misery—The Origin and Prevalence of Evil—The spiritual Dangers of the Metropolis—Retiring from Business—The Conduct proper under fancied or real Wrongs—Honouring and visiting

visiting the Graves of our Friends — Reading — Despair — Love to our Brother — Ministering Spirits — The Succession of Generations — The Chain of the Doctrines.

One important feature in these discourses is that they are not loose harangues, but textual, and regularly divided; by which the hearer is enabled to follow the preacher without being perplexed. In the concluding discourse, (a farewell address to a congregation over which Mr. Grant had for some years presided,) he specifies what he conceives to be the essential articles of Christian faith: but, if he be here doctrinal, he is not dogmatical; and the conclusion shews him to be possessed of a good and affectionate heart.

Art. 15. *Sermons*, by the Rev. John Still, LL.B. 8vo. pp. 251. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1812.

It is the professed object of this preacher also, as well as that of Mr. Grant, (see the preceding article,) to furnish such discourses as may be read by the master of a family on a Sunday-evening to his household: but, of the fifteen which compose this volume, two are fast-sermons, which are not best adapted to children and servants; and perhaps those 'On the Ministration of Angels' and on 'The fallen Angels' are also objectionable on this ground. Sermons for Sunday-evenings should be short, pious, and practical, not involving politics, mystery, or speculation. The other subjects, viz. — The Nativity — The Perfection of our Saviour's Character — The Pleasures of Devotion — Early Habits of Religion — The Death of the Old and Young — The Character of Joshua — The Sacrament — The Condition of good and bad Men in a future State — The Conversion of St. Paul — Returning Good for Evil, — and The Parable of the Marriage Feast, — afford matter for serious reflection to all; and sermons on them may be read with profit to a large or to a small congregation: but we shall take this opportunity of observing that, when the object of domestic improvement is the end at which a preacher more especially aims, we could wish him to select topics which particularly relate to young persons and servants, and not content himself with merely publishing his pulpit-discourses. Children should be taught, with their early piety, obedience to parents, and a sacred regard for truth; while servants, particularly in the present day, require repeated lessons on the duties of sobriety, honesty, respect for their superiors, and, in short, on the importance of moral character and of living in the fear of God. A set of sermons strictly appropriated to the domestic circle is much wanted; and to pave the way for this preaching to servants, the series may commence with displaying the duties of parents and masters of families.

Mr. Still, in the compositions before us, is devout, orthodox, and liberal in his quotation of Scripture: but at p. 70. he applies the "perfect beauty" of Ps. l. 2. to the humanity of the Son of God, which expression the Psalmist refers not to Deity, but to Sion. Mr. S. does not divide his discourses. Well may he exhort men to be good; since he represents the bad as 'cursed everlastingly,' p. 151.

Art. 16. *Sermons, adapted to the Use of Schools, for every Sunday in the Year*, and for the great Fasts and Festivals; selected from

the Works of celebrated Preachers. By the Rev. S. Barrow. 12mo. 6s. 6d. bound. Longman and Co. 1813.

This selection is judicious, and, if not exactly according with the plan which we should have proposed, it embraces the same leading features. The title, indeed, expresses merely its adaptation to the use of schools: but, in the preface, it is made to include the edification of Christian families; and we must observe in its recommendation that, both by the choice of subjects and by the length or rather the shortness of the discourses, it is uncommonly well suited for Sunday-evening domestic lectures. The authors from whom they are abridged manifest the good theological taste of the compiler: since they are chiefly taken from Secker, Porteus, Seed, Sherlock, Horne, Gisborne, Paley, Jortin, Blair, Enfield, Zollikofer, &c.; and the subjects are not only practical, but adapted to the sort of congregation to which they are meant to be delivered, viz. the Duties of the Young — Good Principles in Early Life — Against Cruelty to Animals — Filial Piety — Against Lying and Pride — Temperance in Eating and Drinking — The Effects of Anger — Against Idleness — Against an immoderate Love of Diversions — On the Lord's Prayer — On Nine of the Ten Commandments, &c. &c. To the 52 sermons, one for every Sunday in the year, are added four for Good Friday, Easter Sunday, Whit Sunday, and Christmas-day.

It is evident from the cheapness of this volume, that the compiler consulted not profit but utility; and the masters of schools, and the heads of private families who are in the habit of having a church in their own houses, especially on a Sunday-evening, will be thankful for this selection.

EDUCATION.

Art. 17. *The Female Class-Book;* or Three hundred and Sixty-five Reading Lessons, adapted to the Use of Schools, &c. By Martin Smart. 12mo. 6s. bound. Lackington and Co. 1813.

As this compilation contains a variety of extracts, among which many are pleasing and none are reprehensible, it may be recommended to those who determine to employ young persons in reading scraps and quotations, instead of perusing entire works, and following up the subjects on which they may have begun to gain instruction.

Art. 18. *Grammatical Questions on the English Grammar,* being an easy Method to interrogate Young Persons in Classes, and useful to Teachers and others, to Examine the Progress of Education on that Subject. By the Reverend Christopher Muston, Preceptor of the Boarding School, Epping, Essex. 12mo. Robins and Sons. 1813.

The above title is somewhat deficient in perspicuity; and the grammatical questions, to which it refers, would have been more generally useful to teachers if answers had been annexed to them. They may, however, certainly save some trouble by suggesting topics of examination.

Art. 19. *Scriptural Stories,* for very Young Children. By the Author of "The Decoy," "Natural History of Quadrupeds," &c. With Copper-plates. 12mo. 1s. Darton and Co. 1813.

This little book has an affectionate simplicity of style, which will make it attractive and intelligible to young children: it also conveys excellent admonitions, and gives a clear account of several scriptural histories.

POETRY and the DRAMA.

Art. 20. *First Impressions*; or Trade in the West. A Comedy, in Five Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. By Horatio Smith. Second Edition. 8vo. 3s. Underwood.

"To catch" and depict "the manners" and follies of the age, "living as they rise," is the object of the comic muse; and such a metropolis as London offers so abundant a crop of vicious absurdity, that the pen of the playwright needs never stand still for want of work. Mr. Smith (one of the authors of the admired "Rejected Addresses") has hit off some modern characters with considerable success, and gives no unfaithful picture of the principles on which *the Trade in the West End of the Town* is conducted. The rich low-born citizen travels westward to display his wealth in fashionable circles; while the poor high-born, with all their contempt for trade, are not unwilling, by a *prudent* marriage, to procure the means of dashing away in Portman Square with money scraped together on Dowgate Hill, or in Amen Corner. Such alliances, producing mutual disgust and disappointment, are fair objects of ridicule; and, by exhibiting them on the stage, this important lesson is inculcated, that the vanity of the prosperous trader, in seeking to be connected with individuals who are elated by family pride, is sure to overwhelm him with mortification, and that something like equality of condition is essential to conjugal happiness. This comic writer has exposed the base sentiments which now prevail in the fashionable world on the subject of wealth; a Deity before whom all the virtues, affections, and honourable feelings of nature, are sacrificed. In a part of the play, also, a shaft of ridicule is levelled at those philosophic ladies who study the Sexual System, and frequent the lectures of the Royal Institution: but we will not say that, in the characters of Lady Anemone and Professor Trifleton, any glance at real characters is intended. The plot, if we except the denouement, is not badly managed, and the dialogue displays a smartness which, with the help of good acting, must have an effect on the audience.—When Harcourt boasts of his independence, to his uncle Sir Toby Harbottle, the Baronet exclaims, 'Independence! damn it, Sir, what right have you to set up what you cannot afford to keep? Independence is a luxury.' To this Harcourt drily replies, 'I should hardly think so, since we so seldom meet with it in great houses.' Again, in the first scene of the fourth act, between Sir Thomas and Lady Trapwell, Sir T. says,

"Pray, Lady Trapwell, when do you mean to shew any regard to economy?"

'Lady T.—"Economy! Where did you pick up the vulgar word? Economy, now-a-days, is like a pauper without a parish; no one will own or adopt it unless compelled by necessity. It long since has been driven out of every rich house, and the churchwardens and overseers take care that it shall never be admitted into the poor-house."'

This is good: but when Sir Thomas, speaking of Phebe Murray, in answer to Lady T.'s interrogatory 'whence she came?' replies, 'From the moon, I believe, and *she I suppose is the man in it*,' Mr. S. unfortunately recollected a speech of Sir Samson Legend, in Congreve's "Love for Love," only to spoil it. "Thou," says Sir Samson, to Angelica, "art the moon, and I will be the man in the moon."

The winding up of the plot turns on Louisa's knowing that a Scotch marriage has taken place between Sapling, the man whom she detests, and Phebe Murray; on which she consents to amuse her parents by a mock marriage with him, to secure her real union with Harcourt, her admired lover: but we think that no lady, actually attached to another man, would run the risk of such a marriage, on the mere testimony of a Scotch girl.

The moral of the piece is 'the danger of yielding to *First Impressions*;' and it is hoped that, from the lesson which it teaches, 'none will henceforth pronounce hastily of a fellow-creature, so long as a possibility exists of putting a favourable construction on his actions.'

Art. 21. *Education;* a Comedy, in Five Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Thomas Morton, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

"Such stuff as dreams are made of," or such stuff as modern comedies are made of:—a tissue of improbabilities, given, we should suppose, as a kind of study for a romance-writer: but how it can operate as a lesson of *Education* for our 'ingenuous youth,' by leading them 'from fashion's snares to reason and to truth,' it is not easy to perceive, unless the representation of scenes and characters altogether out of nature be the best mode of making us acquainted with the world as it goes. Mr. Morton's present drama has more of the *outré* of farce, than of the nice delineation of true comedy.

Art. 22. *Virgil in London;* or Town Eclogues. To which are added, Imitations of Horace. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Wilson. 1813.

This satirical wag, who is as merry as a grig, and as brisk as a bottle of perry, wishes to

> 'Improve by mirth the remnant of his span,
> And gaily cut a caper while he can.'

We certainly can have no kind of objection to such amusing frolics: but we must bid him recollect that, as 'cutting capers' was not the practice of the elegant Virgil, he has stolen a poetic appellation which does not belong to him. He should rather have called himself Horace in London; since his satirical sketches are more in the manner of the Venusian than of the Mantuan bard. In one instance he reminds us of Juvenal; the passage, p. 12., beginning, 'While yet my limbs,' &c., being a close imitation of Sat. iii. 26. "*Dum nova canities*," &c.:—but "what's in a name?" Let him be called either Virgil or Horace; he is a very good laugher, applying the satiric lash with effect, yet with a playful dexterity. His is indeed the muse of whim: but he is archly pert as well as whimsical, and we are wicked enough to enjoy his grinning impudence. We could quote several passages from his Eclogues which would amuse our

readers: but we shall take a specimen of his muse from his imitations of Horace, selecting from the poet's address to the Prince Regent the following stanzas:

'Then, please your Highness, tell my Muse
What sort of character you chuse,
Wise, tender, or heroic?
A Chief, invincible in arms —
A Lover, fond of beauty's charms —
A Statesman, or a Stoic?

'To do what many Bards have done,
Suppose I blend them *all in one!*
With compliments in plenty;
And paint you am'rous, wise, and brave,
Chaste, philosophical, and grave,
And call you one-and-twenty.

'Hail, mighty Prince! illustrious youth!
O listen to the voice of truth,
A voice to Monarchs strange;
Thy bright example mends the taste,
Our wives are true, our daughters chaste,
Bear witness, many a slender waist
From Charing Cross to 'Change!

'Augustan days are come, we hope,
For *Doctor Busby* rivals Pope,
And Milton keeps the rear;
Laborious *Scott* the Laurel gains,
Sir Richard lives in *Southey*'s strains,
And Spencer's Muse, where fancy reigns,
Is distanc'd by a *Peer*.

'See *Dibdin*, *Pocock*, *Hook*, agree
And *Arnold*, (no small blockhead he,)
The Drama's rights to seize;
See Op'ras, Farces, all the rage,
And Kemble banish'd from the Stage,
For how can genius charm an age,
Which Shakespear fails to please?

'Britannia! bless thy lucky star,
That gives thee *Garrow* for the Bar,
And *Lancaster* to teach,
R—e for a Ministerial tool,
Intrepid *Castlereagh* to rule,
And *Huntingdon* to preach.

'My mind, as in a glass, surveys
The glories of thy future days,
To me alone display'd;
Ye years, your happy circles run!
Enough — the mighty task is done,
And Phœbus is obey'd.'

Every man who has any conception of humour will relish this Mr. Virgil, and wish that he would write again.

Art. 23. *Poetical Effusions;* comprising Poems, Ballads, and Songs. By C. Feist. Crown 8vo. pp. 80. Boards. Hebert, &c. 1813.

We find that this little volume has long been a *pet* with the author, and he defies the critic to put him out of humour with it. Indeed, for a young man's poetical *pet* it is well adapted, since it is pastoral, romantic, and not a little amatory. Mr. Feist has a whole bevy of beauties on his list, to each of whom he devotes a song; and he bestows his kisses, like a candidate at an election, on every lady who comes in his way, whether she be a Rosa, a Delia, a Julia, a Phillida, a Mary, or a Lavinia. He wishes for

'Moore's poetic fire
To frame the amorous lay:'

but we old codgers are of opinion that he is sufficiently expert in making rhimes to *kiss;* though he is at times negligent in other rhimes. To shew the tenderness of his nature, he admits the robin into his cabin, and puts a butterfly (p. 38.) *in a cage!* but he soon gives up the butterfly for Julia. His romantic ballads are romantic in the extreme: but he succeeds best, we think, in guessing at the wishes of the ladies. We shall select one of the best specimens of this kind:

'SONG. — PHILLIDA'S RESOLUTION.

'If Colin shou'd ask me to dance on the green,
I'll answer him "No!" which will plague him, I ween;
But if he is pressing, and begs — with a kiss,
I'll modestly answer him — "Yes, Colin, yes!"

'Should he venture so far as to ask me to wed,
The first time I'll blush, and I'll hang down my head;
But the next time he asks me, — perchance with a kiss,
I'll hold up my head, and say, — "Yes, Colin, yes!

'And then when he asks me "What day shall it be?"
I'll answer with carelessness, "Any for me;"
But the second I'll answer, to rid him of sorrow,
"Why, I think, my dear Colin, 'twill suit me to-morrow!"

'So thus have I pictur'd what lesson to play, —
For teazing's a gem that all females display;
But I above all take a pride in the rule,
Of teazing a man, tho' he calls me — a fool.'

Art. 24. *Vagaries Vindicated;* or Hypocritick Hypercriticks; a Poem, addressed to the Reviewers. By George Colman, the Younger. 4to. 10s. 6d. sewed. Longman and Co. 1813.

'The Reviewers' having praised Mr. Colman's talents, and rebuked his indecorum, he now promulgates his contempt of their commendation, and his defiance of their censure. If he will prove that the former was undeserved, with more success than attends his defence against the latter, we will promise to offend him no more; since he will then demonstrate that, though *fair game,* he is *not worth powder and shot.* — If, on the contrary, he will fulfil his proposition at the end of the poem, listen to the objections of any 'moral *snaffeeted* man,' and, as he says,

—— 'my

——'my freaks give o'er,
And contrite tell him, I will sin no more,'

he shall find us the 'candid men' who will be his 'friends,' and no 'reviewing Methodists.'

In the mean-time, we must hint to Mr. Colman that he mistakes the matter greatly in *abusing* Reviewers in the old 'hackneyed,' senseless, vulgar terms which he has here adopted. If Reviewers deserve such a character, the world cannot be sufficiently interested about them to enjoy a satire on them; if they do *not* merit this treatment, the world will not patronize such a libel on them. Besides, without speaking hypothetically, the public cannot feel itself complimented in being told that (as in our case) it has been fostering and approving for above sixty years such persons as Mr. C. has described: it will therefore not admit that it has so long been deceived, and that this gentleman is the "*Magnus Apollo*", who has at length found out the truth; and so his own father, our old friend and valued associate, would have told him.

We can scarcely on this occasion be more particular in characterizing Mr. C.'s effusion; yet it has passages which we could praise with pleasure and sincerity, as well as others which we should condemn, if either approbation or blame would be effectual. The poor curate is depicted at p. 40. with the writer's peculiar humour and antithetical play of words; and the three 'Parsons' introduced by Fielding in his History of Joseph Andrews are ably pourtrayed in the subsequent pages. We copy the former, and the Parson Adams of the latter:

'Bid Reason wake, then!—what does she behold?
A Curate, who, 'in conscious virtue bold,'
Can boast a scanty board, a creaking bed,
Nine small ones living, and small-beer that's dead,
A sweeting, sour'd by care, to patch his gown,
And Bible, with the leaves in Job turn'd down:—
A frost-nipt poet, who, in thin attire,
Invokes a frigid Muse to lend him fire,
Who, when his hat he puts upon his pate,
Claps a ring-fence around his whole estate.
And will, when his embarrassments are o'er
Have paid his debt of nature, and no more.'—

'The third,—Oh, Fielding! there, thy master-hand
Will Truth deny? can Gravity withstand?
There Genius, Observation by his side,
Has taught us how to sport, yet not deride;
There the keen artist, the poor churchman's friend,
Bids Laughter, Morals, and Religion, blend.

'Seek contrarieties in man combin'd:
Book-knowledge, with no knowledge of mankind;
Good parts, good nature, open to the shaft
Of worldly ill, for want of worldly craft;
Virtue so pure it ne'er suspects deceit,
Though, every hour, it suffers by a cheat;

Simplicity of soul that claims respect,
But leaves its owner threadbare, in neglect;
Grave character in situations thrown
That playful Comedy declares her own;
Starv'd Hospitality beneath a hut,
And Learning made rich Ignorance's butt;—
Seek, in one person mix'd, the traits that move,
At once, our pity, mirth, esteem, and love;
Seek these, and more, where Wit displays them best,
And honest Parson Adams stands confest.
As from Jove's head the mythologick dame,
Full grown, and all mature, Minerva came,
So Adams sprang, to offer Taste a treat,
From Fielding's brain, a character complete.'

Goldsmith's character is also well drawn; and a part of Johnson's fine epitaph on him is closely and successfully imitated in English verse.

Art. 25. *The Rural Minstrel;* a Miscellany of Descriptive Poems. By the Rev. P. Brontë, A.B. Minister of Hartshead-cum-Clifton, near Leeds. 12mo. pp. 108. 5s. Boards. Crosby and Co.

Critics are sometimes accused of severity: but are they not "more sinned against than sinning?" If they are angry, it is because some author, presuming on talents which he does not possess, has given them a head-ache. Mr. Brontë, conceiving himself to be a poet, will regard us as bad and perhaps as ill-natured critics because we happen to be of a very different opinion: but we are confident that our readers will not accuse us of badly or ill naturedly performing our office, if we with-hold our commendation from such lines as these:

'He bled — he bled — the Prince of glory bled! —
To quell the ragings of his Father's ire,
And save a guilty world from quenchless fire!
But now in heaven he lifts his Sovereign head.'

In another poem, a character termed Convictus, as he leaned against an oak, hearing a voice,

'Quickly turned him round, and on the tree was laid
A golden volume which he opened soon —
And half encouraged, half afraid,
He read his gracious boon,
"Immanuel's blood was shed for thee,
Thy sins are pardoned, thou art free —
Then go and sin no more,
Jehovah Jesus, worshipping, adore."'

Mr. B. seems to be very desirous of promoting love towards the Saviour of the world, but not towards the Father who sent him, since otherwise he would not have talked of 'the ragings of the Father's ire;' which, if not quelled by the Son, would have overwhelmed us 'in quenchless fire.' On this statement, we owe no obligations to God the Father for the blessings of redemption, but all our gratitude must centre in the Son. Such representations can do no credit either to the Christain faith or the Christian muse.

NOVELS.

NOVELS.

Art. 26. *The Adventures of a Dramatist,* on a Journey to the London Managers. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Lackington and Co. 1813.

In the selection of names for the majority of the characters in this novel, Mr. Frere, the author, has been tolerably fortunate: but, in giving a denomination to his hero, he has adopted an aukward expedient, viz. that of spelling his own patronymic backwards; and thus his dramatist is christened Ererf, a name, we believe, never before assigned to any human creature. Did Mr. F., by this crab-like mode of proceeding, mean to insinuate that the character which he here undertakes to delineate is completely the reverse of his own? We hope that he did; since B. Ererf is an absurd and unnatural being. Yet, though his own conduct is weak, he is at times made to offer judicious as well as sagacious reflections on the conduct of others. He made us merry by finding a *merry-thought* in the goose dissected at the Methodist's table: but we frowned at the very illiberal insinuation conveyed in the improbable story of a Methodist preacher breaking open and plundering the bureau of a person in whose house he was hospitably entertained. As little credibility exists in the dramatist's adventure of *the corpse;* for though we have been told of some watermen, who, in plundering a farm-yard by night, carried away an ass, supposing it to be a calf, we never heard of villains so very stupid as to mistake the corpse of an old woman for a fat pig. *Quodcunque ostendis mihi sic,* &c., Horace would here say. The second volume is better than the first, and the Vision indicates some genius: but the dramatist manifests little knowlege of the London world; and, having kept clear of the fascinating mazes of love, he will be said by the ladies to be a very dull *quizzical* creature.

Art. 27. *The Border Chieftains;* or Love and Chivalry. By Miss Houghton, Author of "The Mysteries of the Forest." 12mo. 3 Vols 18s. Boards. Robinsons. 1813.

The chief *faults* which can be attributed to this novel are that it contains many instances of bad grammar, and that the manners and language of the characters have no resemblance to those of the 14th century, although the events here detailed are represented as having taken place during the reign of Edward the Third. Its principal *recommendations* are of a negative kind: viz. that it is neither immoral nor very long.

Art. 28. *Mount Erin;* an Irish Tale. By Matilda Potter. 12mo. 2 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. Souter. 1813.

It has seldom been our fate to examine a composition more glaringly ungrammatical, than this tale; of which every page contains sentences as incorrect as the following passages: (Vol. i. p. 184.) 'A promise entered into before the ruler of mankind dare not be violated.'—(Vol. ii. p. 201.) 'My appearing suddenly before my beloved Mrs. Sarsfield, excess of joy nearly destroyed her.'—In page 186. the word *phaeton* is repeatedly spelt *pheaton;* and in page 193. we read that 'one moment's ecstacy *oblivionized* years of suffering.'—Many scraps of poetry are inserted, and we suspect that some lines without

without a name, in Vol. i. p. 204., may be attributed to Miss Potter herself: they are as follow:

> 'Ah ruthless war, dire are the evils thou
> Art productive of, how many babes hast thou
> Rendered fatherless, wives unprotected?
> Cease thy despoiling scourge!'

It will scarcely be expected that a writer, who remains ignorant of the first principles of grammar, should be able to offer attractive examples of moral excellence, or even natural descriptions of character and manners: accordingly, the sentiments in this novel exhibit

> "Three-piled hyperboles, spruce affectation;"

and the adventures are both insipid and extravagant.

POLITICS.

Art. 29. *A View of the Political State of Europe, after the Battle of Leipsic*, gained Oct. 18. 1813. 8vo. pp. 99. Colburn. 1813.

If we were to judge from the style, we should say that this pamphlet is apparently of French origin, and its political spirit can leave but little doubt of the quarter from which it has proceeded. It begins by explaining how greatly the successes of Bonaparte were accelerated by the delusion which his fallacious appeals and representations tended to create, among the nations whom he successively attacked; and it observes that the power of his political machinery seemed to be irresistible, till he found in the Russians a nation against whom the batteries of threats and of flattery were directed in vain. Until then, says the writer, Napoleon had combated cabinets and nations who were guided by calculation: but the Russians listened only to the impulse of feeling; and 'when man resigns himself to the emotions of his soul, his power becomes undefinable.'

After this preamble, the author passes in rapid review many of the leading events of late years; and his composition, though without the merit of regularity, possesses a considerable title to praise on the score of animation and eloquence. His chief arguments are directed (p. 27. *et seq.*) against the conclusion of peace with France, as long as Bonaparte shall remain at the head of its government; and no pause, he says, must take place in the progress of the allies, until Italy be delivered, and Belgium restored to its former possessors. An opportunity such as the present is not again to be found in a century: 'When shall we see again so many sovereigns assembled and co-operating with zeal and cordiality? What would reproduce that marvellous agreement of so many interests to which the concurrent hatred of one man has given so perfect a unity? To rouse again the spirit of the Russians, to exasperate the Prussians, Moscow must be once more delivered to the flames, and the provinces of the house of Brandenburg become anew the prey of 50,000 spoliators.' Amid the most decided reprobation of Bonaparte, however, the author is careful to maintain the cause of France, that is, of France as she stood before the Revolution. She must abandon, he says, all her late incorporations;

tions; but, were the allies to go farther, the tranquillity of the world would be endangered. 'France, the eldest daughter of Europe, can never be erased from the list of civilized nations: she has been for near twenty years a torrent of destruction; but let her return into her bed, and her salutary waters may yet produce health and fecundity.'

In the latter part of the pamphlet, the writer speaks out still more explicitly; declaring that Bonaparte should no longer be permitted to reign, and that no serious obstacles oppose the reinstatement of the Bourbons. 'Who but the heir of thirty-five Kings can rescue France from a yoke which her oppressor renders every day more and more odious? Let Bonaparte fall, and Louis XVIII. can no longer have a rival. If the generation which has risen up in France know nothing of the Bourbons, those who govern, those who occupy important posts, lived under the last reign. The attachment of the armies to Bonaparte is no longer to be feared: they loved nothing but his triumphs: his reverses have opened their eyes. The national pride of the French may still maintain a struggle with foreign invaders, but address should be used in separating this sentiment, noble in itself, from the wretch who has so egregiously abused it.'

Such are the leading arguments of this author; who, amid a variety of effusions, approaching to declamation, makes occasionally some judicious remarks on the causes of the late wonderful changes. —'Bonaparte,' he says, 'was deceived by the gross error of believing in the fidelity of nations compressed by military force. He was led, likewise, by the facility of his past successes to believe himself invincible, and to calculate that all human resistance must give way before him.' — One of the best passages of the pamphlet is the representation of the harmony subsisting among the allied powers: 'The grandest part of these conquests is that obtained over every sentiment of jealousy, over all superannuated pretensions: it is not the extent of country reconquered that forms at present the most brilliant part of their career: it is the generosity, the unanimity which produces so much success.' This language, though strong, is not exaggerated; for never was the effect of oppression, in rousing against itself the spirit of the sufferers, more completely illustrated than in the present unexampled combination against Napoleon Bonaparte.

Art. 30. *The Political Constitution of the Spanish Monarchy.* Proclaimed in Cadiz, 19th of March, 1812. 12mo. pp. 147. Boards. Souter. 1813.

The labours of the Spanish Cortes have been conducted in a considerable degree on the principles of the British constitution; and the chief points of difference, between their theoretical plan and our practical institutions, consist in the want of explicit toleration and of the form of trial by jury. It will be remembered by some of our readers that Joseph Bonaparte, on commencing his short-lived reign, was instructed by Napoleon to declare that he regarded the "want of toleration as a wise feature of the Spanish government;" and, in pursuance of the spirit that suggested this artful profession, the Cortes have deemed it right, or rather have been obliged, to insert in the present plan of government the following article:

"The

"The religion of the Spanish nation is, and shall be perpetually, Catholic, apostolic, and Roman, the only true religion. The nation protects it by wise and just laws, and prohibits the exercise of any other whatever."

With this exception, we perceive considerable liberality in the institutes of this legislative assembly. The royal power is limited both as to taxation and other essential points, while ample provision is made for admitting the distant colonists to a share in the representation. — The lawyers appear to be no great favourites with the deputies of the Spanish nation, since the new code contains (article 284.) a proviso "that no law-suits can be commenced without proof of reconciliation having been attempted;"—and the degraded state of education in Spain is admitted in article twenty-five, in which it is gravely declared that "all who claim the rights of citizenship must be able to read and write."

We should have pleasure in enlarging on the leading features of this code, had not the experience of Europe during the last twenty-five years impressed us strongly with the instability of paper constitutions. France, Holland, Germany, Italy, and Poland, have each afforded striking examples of the wonderful expedition with which the party, that is possessed of the executive power, finds means to cut down the elaborate projects of its predecessors.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 31. *Omniana;* or, *Horæ Otiosiores.* 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

Why should a work for English readers be published with a double Latin title; and why should the name of its author be placed on the *outside* of it, and not within? Into the common-place book, however, of such a man as Mr. Southey, to whom we owe these volumes, common-place stuff could not gain admission; and therefore we took them up with the confident expectation of finding in them much curious and instructive matter. No disappointment has resulted from the perusal of them. The produce of extensive literary gleanings is collected in this tithe-barn; which contains the fruits of Mr. Southey's reflections, in addition to those of his reading; and few of the *anas* exhibit so great a number of rare and amusing articles. We cannot, by a few selections, afford a proper idea of the whole: but we shall at random make two or three extracts, and refer those who wish to glean for themselves to Mr. Southey's *omnium-gatherum.*

'*War.*—It would have proved a striking part of a vision presented to Adam, the day after the death of Abel, to have brought before his eyes half a million of men crowded together in the space of a square mile. When the first father had exhausted his wonder on the multitude of his offspring, he would then naturally inquire of his angelic instructor, for what purposes so vast a multitude had assembled? what is the common end?—alas! to murder each other, all Cains, and yet no Abels!'—

'*Change of Climate.*—It is long since many, of whom I am one, says Lord Dreghorn, have maintained that the seasons are altered; that it is not so hot now in summer as when we were boys. Others

laugh

laugh at this, and say, that the supposed alteration proceeds from an alteration in ourselves; from our having become older, and consequently colder. In 1783 or 1784, in the course of a conversation I had with my brewer, who is very intelligent and eminent in his way, he maintained that an alteration had taken place. This observation he made from a variety of circumstances: the diminution of the number of swallows, the coldness that attends rain, the alteration in the hours of labour at the time of sowing barley, which a great many years ago was a work performed very early in the morning on account of the intenseness of the heat after the sun had been up some time. He added, that for many years past, he had found, that the barley did not malt as formerly, and the period he fixed on was the year in which the earthquake at Lisbon happened. I was much surprised at this last observation, and did not pay much attention to it till last summer, when I happened to read *Les Annales Politiques* of Linguet, a very scarce book, which I was sure my brewer had never read; for there, to my astonishment, I found the very same opinion, with this additional fact, that in Champagne, where he was born, they have not been able since that earthquake to make the same wine. He says too, that he has seen the title-deeds of several estates in Picardy, which proved that at that time they had a number of excellent vineyards, but that now no such crop can be reared there. He also attempts to account philosophically for that earthquake having such effects.

'Thus far Lord Dreghorn. The country about Placentia, (the retreat of Charles V.,) once one of the most fertile parts of Spain, is said by the inhabitants to have lost its fertility since that great earthquake. It is another extraordinary fact upon the same subject, that the herring-fishery on our eastern coast commences now a month later than it did in the days of our grandfathers.

'That the climate of England is changed within the last half century, is now generally admitted. Mr. Williams has lately attempted to account for it, by the great introduction of foreign trees and grasses, which, being natives of hotter climates, give out a far greater evaporation than our own indigenous vegetables. I have only seen an account of this gentleman's book, not the book itself. The fact is very curious, and the application highly ingenious. But it is manifest that this solution is not adequate to the phenomenon: for change of climate is equally complained of in other countries, where planting is not in fashion, and where no improvements in agriculture have been introduced. To those countries it is not applicable, neither will it explain the increased prevalence of west and south-west winds.

'Mr. Williams proposes that electric mills should be erected over the country, to supply electricity to the atmosphere, when there is a deficiency, and draw it off when there is an excess. Darwin's scheme for towing ice-islands to the tropics was nothing when compared to this. But let philosophy tell us all its dreams: the more projects the better: there is no danger of their being adopted before they have been well weighed, and though ninety-nine may deserve the ridicule which the whole hundred are sure to incur, the hundredth may nevertheless succeed.'—

'*Parly*

'*Party Passion.*—"Well, Sir!" (exclaimed a lady, the vehement and impassionate partizan of Mr. Wilkes, in the day of his glory, and during the broad blaze of his patriotism,) "Well, Sir! and will you dare deny, that Mr. Wilkes is a great man, and an eloquent man? *Oh! by no means, Madam! I have not a doubt respecting Mr. Wilkes's talents.*—"Well, but, Sir! and is he not a fine man, too, and a handsome man?"—*Why, Madam! he squints—doesn't he?* "Squints! yes, to be sure, he does, Sir! but not a bit more, than a gentleman and a man of sense *ought to squint!!*"'—

'*Beer and Ale.*

'Hops and turkies, carp and beer,
Came into England all in a year.

'A different reading of this old distich adds reformation to the list of imports, and thereby fixes the date to Henry VIIIth's time.

'What was the difference between the beer then introduced into this country, and the ale of our ancestors? There is a passage quoted by Walter Harris, in the Antiquities of Ireland, from the Norman poet, Henry of Araunches, in which the said Henry speaks with notable indecorum of this nectar of Valhalla.

'*Nescio quod Stygiæ monstrum conforme paludi*
Cervisiam *plerique vocant; nil spissius illa*
Dum bibitur, nil clarius est dum mingitur, unde
Constat quod multas fæces in ventre relinquit.

'The first requisite of savage luxury is fermented liquor; refining it is the process of a more advanced stage. The Polynesians, like the Tupi tribes, drink their kava as thick as porridge. But Henry must have kept low company, if he never saw better ale than what he abuses, for the art of refining it was known at a much earlier age among the northern nations. Mr. Turner, in his invaluable history of the Anglo-Saxons, quotes a grant of Offa, in which *clear* ale is mentioned, and distinguished from *mild* ale and *Welch* ale.

'In the laws of Hywel Dda, two liquors are mentioned; ... *Bragawd*, of which, tribute was to be paid by a free township, (*Villa libera,*) and *Cwrwf*, which was to be paid by the servile townships (*Villis servilibus*); if the former had no *Bragawd*, they were to supply a double quantity of *Cwrwf;* the relative value is thus distinctly marked. Wotten renders the former word *cerevisia aromatitis;* the latter *cerevisia vulgaris;* but *vulgaris* he marks as an epithet added to explain the original text. According to Mr. Owen, *Bragawd*, or Bragget, is a very different liquor from ale, being made of the wort of ale and mead fermented together; *Cwrw* is certainly at present good, *clear*, substantial ale, worthy of honourable and grateful mention from all who have drank it; a far better liquor than bragget can be; though this indeed is a matter of taste, and bragget would be the costlier beverage. I am inclined to think that *Cwrw* would not have been thus disrespectfully regarded in the Welsh laws, had it been the same liquor then which it is now. Perhaps it was not fined. That art may have been brought by the Saxons, and this would explain the difference indicated in Offa's grant.

'If

'If the *hop* was intoduced into the island only in Henry VIIIth's time, it cannot have been used before in the common drink of the country. Ale, therefore, seems then to have been made with malt alone, and consequently beer was at that time a different liquor.

'This I see is confirmed by Fuller the Worthy, in his History of Cambridge. "Erasmus, so he says, when he resided at Queen's College in that university, often complained of the College ale as raw, small, and windy: — *Cervisia hujus loci mihi nullo modo placet:* whereby, continues Fuller, it appears, 1st, Ale in that age was the constant beverage of all colleges, before the innovation of beer (the child of hops) was brought into England; 2d, Queen's College *cerevisia* was not *vis cereris*, but *ceres vitiata*. In my time, when I was a member of that House, scholars continued Erasmus his complaint; whilst the brewers, having it seemed prescription on their side for long time, little amended it."'

The long article on Henry More's poetry might have been spared; and Mr. Southey's opinion on the phænomena of sky-stones, at Vol. ii. p. 204—213., may be erroneous: but, if his philosophical sentiments be not always correct, his reflections are sensible and acute.

These *Omniana*, or parts of them, first appeared (we believe) in a magazine intitled The Athenæum.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 32. *On the Influence of Religious Knowledge, as tending to produce a gradual Improvement in the social State;* preached at the Meeting-house, Monkwell-street, Jan. 3. 1813, by James Lindsay, D.D., for the Benefit of the Royal Lancasterian Institution, established in the Wards of Aldersgate, Bassishaw, Coleman-street, and Cripplegate, in the City of London; and the Parish of St. Luke's, Middlesex. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson and Co.

With considerable eloquence and strength of argument, Dr. Lindsay descants on the powerful influence of knowlege, particularly of Christian knowlege, in disposing man to a performance of the duties and in qualifying him for the virtuous enjoyment of the social state. All institutions, which embrace the instruction and moral discipline of the multitude, must, by imbuing them early with good principles, and by training them to good habits, operate towards the amelioration of nations. Yet, since war between governments does not depend on the moral character of subjects, but is the result of the ambition or the mistaken views of rulers, the improvement of the vulgar in religious knowlege can have only a slight effect in producing universal peace. Dr. L. seems to think that, in consequence of the universal diffusion of Christian knowlege, war will *totally* cease on the earth: but this event is no more likely to take place *literally*, while men are men, and while the interests of nations and the pride of potentates clash, than the figurative language of the prophet Isaiah, respecting the quiet association of the lion with the lamb, is likely to be *literally* realized. Christianity has certainly effected much, and will surely do more, for the improvement of the social state: but perhaps Dr. L. is too sanguine in his anticipations, when he regards the attainments already made as inconsiderable in comparison with those which will in future take place; and when he supposes that 'the space

space, through which we have now to travel *to the land of promise*, is short and easy compared with that which has been passed.'

The superior morality of Scotland contrasted with that of Ireland, and the fact 'that no instance of legal prosecution is yet known against any youth who has been educated by Joseph Lancaster,' demonstrate the importance of educating the poor; and we wish the fullest success to the plan here so ably advocated.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have recovered the letter signed *Philalethes:* but its contents have not in the least altered our conviction on the point to which it relates. The reference to the authority of Mr. Malthus is unfortunate, because that gentleman's object is to shew that, by the checks which population receives, it cannot proceed in a geometrical ratio. On the other subject of the letter, it is superfluous to argue. *Philalethes* shall enjoy his opinion, if he will permit us to enjoy ours.

The work of W. J. of Pentonville would have appeared in our pages some time ago, had not an accidental circumstance prevented. We shall now speedily attend to it, and not in the cursory manner which the writer apprehends. As to his *remarks* on other points, in his letter, he will excuse us from deferring to his judgment until he has served a double apprenticeship to that office, of the duties of which he criticizes the discharge.

Again we have to say that anonymous contributions to the M. R. are never accepted:—this in answer to a MS. dated Cambridge, relative to a certain classical work.

Mr. Parker wishes us to state that his pamphlet on the Law of Tithes, mentioned in our last Number, was principally intended 'to counteract the errors of a book on Tithes by the Rev. James Bearblock;' and that his title-page announced Remarks on Mr. B.'s work, 'which is by no means of merely a local interest.'—We did not advert to Mr. P.'s criticism on Mr. Bearblock, because this gentleman's publication has escaped our notice.

If *An Old Customer* re-considers the passages which we extracted from Zollikofer's sermons, he must surely allow that they contain sentiments which are not generally deemed *orthodox*. As to their agreement with expressions in former volumes of this excellent preacher's sermons, or the question respecting any change in his sentiments, they are points which we cannot now discuss.

*** The APPENDIX to the lxxiid Vol. of the Review is published with this Number; containing, as usual, a variety of articles of FOREIGN LITERATURE, with the *General Title, Table of Contents*, and *Index*, for the Volume.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For FEBRUARY, 1814.

ART. I. *A Tour through Italy*, exhibiting a View of its Scenery, its Antiquities, and its Monuments; particularly as they are Objects of Classical Interest and Elucidation; with an Account of the present State of its Cities and Towns; and occasional Observations on the recent Spoliations of the French. By the Rev. John Chetwode Eustace. 2 Volumes. 4to. 5l. 5s. Boards. Mawman. 1813.

ITALY has so long been a land forbidden to our countrymen, and, of the many tours in it that were written at a time when its countless treasures were open to all the world, so very few have been performed by travellers equal to the office, that the work to which we now call the attention of our readers becomes of double and triple interest. The qualifications requisite for a tourist to the north of Europe are common to nearly every travelling fellow of the Universities; and hundreds of individuals, with endowments far inferior to the members of those respectable bodies, need not shrink from the task of describing a Dutch farm, a fair at Leipsic or at Frankfort, or a winter in Russia. To climates more ungenial than our own, and to patrons by no means calculated to excite our envy, we are ordinarily considerate and even partial. A certain raciness of character yet approximates the Englishman to the inhabitants of northern Europe, whom he is inclined to believe to be more virtuous, more hardy, and more like what he esteems himself to be, than the people of more favoured climates. In antient times, when the northern hordes poured like a torrent from their frozen wilds into the bosom of fair and envied Italy, the Romans, who trembled at their rapacity and their propensity to intoxication, were yet edified and astonished by their chastity: but no sooner were these same tribes civilized, than to southern lubricity the capitals of northern Europe added their former intemperance at the table.—The northern nations are also supposed to be more hardy and better adapted to purposes of war and agriculture. True it is that from the prodigal consumption of Roman youth, and the extreme effeminacy of manners which brought on the fall of that mighty empire, before Christianity called men back from their lawless desires, the masters of the

world had dwindled in character to its very dregs and sweepings. At this age of Italian degradation, the barbarians, who had generally the advantage of Roman discipline and superior numbers, gained the ascendancy over a people lost in luxury, and distracted by domestic and public vices: but centuries have since elapsed; and, if the picture be not reversed, a candid observer, who judges from local knowlege, cannot deny that in physical force, in longevity, in spirit, and, lastly, in temperance, (the parent of health and of virtue,) the south may not fear a comparison with northern Europe. Those Italians, who have been taxed with effeminacy, have figured of late but too fatally in the field, assisting in the warfare against the liberties of Europe: while those Portuguese, who but four years ago were sunken in sloth and inertness, have begun to redeem the honours of the south, and have at length, from the effects of discipline, and under circumstances favourable to national character, been pronounced to be the rivals and equals of British soldiers.

Yet so violent has been the prejudice against the Italian character in particular, that, before we pass the Alps in company with the present author, we must advert to those of his representations which may serve to tranquillize the fears of our countrymen for his safety, among a people whom writers and travellers have painted in such odious colours. If a scene of debauchery be introduced into a romance, it is placed in an Italian convent. If an assassin be wanted to frighten ladies in the country, or to terrify a London mob on the stage, an Italian appears; a monk, or a friar, probably, with a dose of poison in one hand, and a dagger in the other. Or if a crime too great for utterance is to be presented to the imagination, it is half disclosed in an Italian *confessional*. Such representations have been inserted in so many books of travels, and interwoven with so many popular tales, that they have biassed public opinion, and excited a distrust and an antipathy towards the Italian nation. This fondness for ill-natured fiction, which was remarked and censured by M. Swinburne, has also been of serious disadvantage to our countrymen; often closing against them the best sources of information in the societies of Italy and Sicily.

In direct hostility to the inventors of these *Tales of Terror*, Mr. Eustace, who is endowed with all the natural and acquired gifts and advantages which fitted him for intimately knowing Italy and Italians, asserts that the inhabitants, at the period of his visit, (in 1802,) were by no means the unworthy successors of the antient Romans. It is really almost a pity to perceive this gentleman refuting those charges against the Italians, the supposed certainty of which has furnished our fair novelists with

with so many dungeons and friars, daggers and assassins, carcases and spectres; to hear him declare that 'the Italian is neither vindictive nor cruel, but hasty and passionate;' that 'he is courageous and temperate;' that 'his temper, like his climate, is habitually gay and serene;' that 'murder is not more frequent in Italy than in France and England,' and that 'the Italian is scarcely ever tempted to it by that vile, hellish love of money, which in France and England impels so many miscreants, after a cool calculation of profit, to imbrue their hands in the blood of their fellow-creatures;' that 'the Italian peasantry are examples of labour and perseverance;' and that 'their industry may be traced over every plain, and discovered on almost every mountain, from the *Alps* to the *Straits of Messina.*'

'Italian industry,' continues the author, 'is not confined to regions of fertility. From Bologna to Loretto, a distance of one hundred and fifty miles, it has covered the coasts of the Adriatic with rich harvests, and shaded the brows of the Appenines with verdure and foliage. It also displays its labours to the best advantage, and every where shews in fences, canals to water the fields, plantations, &c., a neatness of tillage seldom witnessed, and never surpassed even in the best cultivated countries; and not these regions only, but the defiles of *Seravalle;* the lovely vales of the Arno and of the *Clitumnus,* of *Terni* and of *Reate;* the skirts of *Vesuvius* so often ravaged and so often restored to cultivation; the orchards that blow on the steeps of *Vallombrosa,* and wave on the summits of *Monte Sumano; Italy,* all *Italy, blooming as the garden of God,* from the *Adriatic* to the *Tuscan,* from the *Alps* to the *Ionian* sea, is a proof and a monument of the industry and the intelligence of its inhabitants.'—

'But the Italians sleep in the middle of the day, and lie stretched out under the porticoes of the churches, or under the shade of the vine, when they ought to be working; therefore they are a lazy, sluggish race. The Italians, like the Sicilians and Greeks, follow the example of their ancestors in this respect, and only obey the call of nature, in reposing during the sultry hours, when labour is dangerous, and the heat is intolerable. To compensate for this suspension, they begin their labours with the dawn, and prolong them to the close of evening; so that the Italian sleeps less, and labours more, in the four-and-twenty hours, than the English peasant.'

To the charge of mendicity, his answer is rather a recrimination than a defence; which leads to a remark that should be well considered by some of our legislators, who have the good of their country at heart:

'After all, a foreigner who has visited some of the great manufacturing towns, and traversed the northern and western parts of the United Kingdom, may ask with surprize what right we have to reproach other nations with their poverty and misery, when under our own eyes are exhibited instances of nakedness, filth, and distress, ex-

ceeding all that has hitherto been related of Italy, of France, or of any country under heaven, excepting perhaps some of the Prussian territories. *Quam in nos legem sancimus iniquam.*'

'In fine, the peasantry of the north of Italy, it appears, 'were, previous to the French invasion, universally taught to read and write. They were in every respect as well instructed as that class ought to be, and equal, in point of information, to the peasantry of the most flourishing countries of Europe.'—'The middling classes were well instructed in every thing that regards their duty.' The rich and the noble appear both at Rome and Naples, and indeed elsewhere, to be the vigilant and tender guardians of their inferiors, intent on relieving their wants; and they presented in their own body as large a share of information as is to be found in almost any European nation.

Having perceived, in common with the author, the necessity of reconciling England to Italy, we have drawn together, at the commencement of our observations, those remarks which lie scattered in different parts of his work, but of which the principal focus is towards the conclusion of the second volume. We moreover foresee, however, an objection which may possibly be urged against the book itself. The principal buildings of modern Italy are, as they undoubtedly should be, religious buildings; and, as the religion of Italy is the religion of Mr. Eustace himself, he contemplates and describes them with an affection to which most of his readers will be strangers. We say that Mr. Eustace is of the church of Rome, but his country is England; and never did child speak of parent with greater love and veneration than this author manifests towards his native land. He is minute in describing the architecture of religious structures, as indeed of all the other prominent edifices, or ruins, of antient and modern Italy. His book is a manual and a guide to the whole country. All his reading, all his inquiries, all his endeavours appear to have been devoted to the study of this glorious theatre of antient and modern exploits; his vigilance is ever on the alert; his reason is unobstructed by prejudice; and his work will improve the heart while it instructs the understanding.

A preliminary discourse treats of the acquirements which are necessary to prosecute with advantage a journey through the Italian states; and, as the degrees of preparation requisite for travelling vary with the antiquity, literature, and genius of the country which it is intended to visit, he who wishes to be improved by a sojourn in Italy is properly advised to carry into the field a mind imbued with the past scenes of which that region has been the theatre, with its antient and modern languages, and with some knowlege of medals, architecture, and sculpture.

That nothing may be wanting to his banquet, we should subjoin in opposition to Mr. Eustace, a predisposition, from science and from taste, to feel the eloquence of the music of Italy. If to these attainments, and to a happy desire for improvement, be added an unprejudiced mind, and a determination neither to believe nor to repeat idle stories, but to see and hear for himself, and without a deputy, we should pronounce such a person fully equipped for enjoying the finest territory under heaven. Addison, who certainly was not destitute of the information, was rather deficient in the benevolence which is necessary to improvement, since religious acrimony had soured his temper, and party-spirit had repressed his imagination. Mr. Eustace, however, expresses himself too strongly in adding, 'He ran over great part of Europe, particularly Italy, not so much as a classic as a Whig traveller. Hence in his eyes countries appeared fertile and happy, or barren and miserable, not as nature formed them, but as they were connected with France or with Austria, and as their religion was Protestant or Catholic.' The learned Smelfungus and Mundungus, whom Sterne met on their return from that interesting land, and who perhaps were no others than Doctors Sharpe and Smollett, saw nothing in it that was worth seeing: but information and liberality allied will find much, and will bring home much, that is worthy to be viewed and to be adopted.

It is, however, necessary to warn all those who may propose, at the return of peaceful times, to visit Italy, that they must not deem themselves slighted by the nobles, and others to whom they may have procured introductions, because they are not frequently invited to their tables. In the north, where the enjoyments of climate and of scene are not so exalted,—where a sullen sky, a long winter, and a reluctant spring, naturally incline men to seek resources in convivial pleasures,—the extreme apathy of the Italian for those pleasures would excite wonder; and, as this omission has been the source of much disappointment, we beg leave to submit to the reader a few farther remarks on this subject, as a supplement necessary to the entire comprehension of the Italian character. The modern Italian, possessing but a limited income, is compelled, out of the circle of pleasures, to select that which best assorts with his inclination. Unable to indulge in all, he prefers the permanent to the momentary; and the palace, the library, the cabinet, and the gallery, enriched with learning and the arts, with him supersede the enjoyments of the table. His civilities, therefore, consist in opening his doors to the curious, and his hospitalities are not unusually confined to ices and lemonades.

The pleasures of conversation he enjoys, like Cicero, under the shade of the plane-tree or the cypress; his disposition, naturally lively, is in no need of the stimulus of wine; and the formalities of a party are rather a curb than a spur to his imagination.

Mr. Eustace's tour was undertaken in company with Mr. Philip Roche, a young gentleman of fortune; who, (we are told,) 'while he spared no expence to render it instructive, contributed much to its pleasures by his gentle manners, and by his mild and benevolent virtues. The author is destined to pay this unavailing tribute to the memory of his friend and companion.' With Messrs. Eustace and Roche were associated the Hon. Mr. Cust, now Lord Brownlow, and Mr. Robert Rushbroke, to both of whom the author presents his testimony of esteem. Every page in these two important volumes bears the stamp and character of truth, and truth has a language of her own, which defies imitation; yet we rejoice in this association of respectable evidence to a correctness which, for our own part, should seem unquestionable.

The travellers departed from Vienna for Munich on the 28th of January, 1802; and, quitting the latter city on the 5th of February, at eleven o'clock at night, they arrived at Saltzburgh late on the evening of the following day. This sub-alpine city is placed as if to guard the entrance into the grand defile which traverses the Rhetian Alps; and it may be considered, for that reason, as forming one of the outposts to Italy. The most striking object which it presents is a very noble gate-way, cut through the solid rock; and the inscription in honour of the bishop who executed it is neat and appropriate, "*Te saxa loquuntur.*" The superstition attached to the Unterberg mountain, and the salt-mines at Halleim, agreeably arrest the reader's attention, and are succeeded by a winter-scene in a defile of the Alps, which is truly tremendous.—Arriving at Inspruck, the capital of the Tyrol, and continuing their way in quiet security through places of which the dreadful solitudes and fastnesses were once the haunts of sanguinary free-booters, the party approached the Adige. Crossing that river at the village of Mezzo Tedesco, they reached the opposite village Mezzo Lombardo; and, passing through Salurno, interesting from its antiquity, they arrived at Trent. A short and possibly an impartial account is here given of the famous Council held within the walls of this city, about the middle of the sixteenth century. In the church of Santa Maria Maggiore, where its sessions generally took place, a picture exists representing it in full assembly. Although the principal object of this council (that of universal conformity) failed, yet it was

of great utility in pruning many luxuriancies from the Roman church, of which the notoriety had given rise to the Reformation. — From Trent, the road continues to run through a narrow valley, watered by the Adige, (Athesis,) 'covered with vines conducted over trellis-work, or winding from tree to tree in garlands. — The snow insensibly diminished, a more genial sun lighted up the valleys, the number of neat little villages seemed to encrease on both banks of the river; and the approach of Italy was announced not only by an amelioration in the climate, but also in the taste of the inhabitants.' — 'The churches and public buildings assume a better form; the shape and ornaments of their portals, doors, and windows, are more graceful; and their epitaphs and inscriptions, which, as Addison justly observes, are a certain criterion of public taste, breathe a more classical spirit.' An open and sonorous language succeeds to German dissonance at Roverido; and Verona, august in itself and lovely in its situation, displays to the curious traveller its antient amphitheatre and gate inscribed with the name of Gallienus; recalling also to his memory not only Catullus, Vitruvius, and Pliny the Elder, but a constellation of great men, who, in antient and modern times, have illustrated it by their birth or their education.

When Mr. Eustace visited this antient and beautiful city, the traces of Gallo-Vandal desolation were yet discernible around its walls; and even the amphitheatre itself, equal in its proportions and materials, and only inferior in size, to the Coliseum, was defaced by a wooden structure, built in its area for the purpose of regaling the soldiery and citizens with French interludes, which looked 'as if intended by the builder as a satire on the *Great Nation* that could disfigure so noble an arena.' — 'The Veronese,' adds the author, 'beheld this characteristic absurdity with indignation.' Indeed, they have ever distinguished themselves by their attachment to antient monuments; and even so early as the thirteenth century, when most other people considered the vast and venerable piles of Roman magnificence merely as quarries that afforded materials for their crude designs, the Veronese had appropriated sums for the repairs of their amphitheatre. Besides the antient gate, in the middle of the street, called the Corso, inscribed to Gallienus, the remains of another gate, of similar though purer form, may be seen in the Via Leoni; with some remnants of Doric ornaments, said to afford one of the best specimens of that order which can be found in Italy. The Museo Lapidario contains a vast collection of antient altars, tombs, sepulchral vases, inscriptions, &c., assembled and arranged principally by the celebrated Maffei, a nobleman whose learning and taste reflect

honour on the place of his birth and his usual residence. To a perspicuous account of the present city, Mr. Eustace adds a short sketch of the history of Verona, of its submission to Venice, and of its final degradation as effected by the robberies of the French.

On the whole, the author visited few places with more satisfaction than Verona. It was the first Cisalpine city that he had entered; and the charm of treading for the first time on classic ground, the beauty of the modern and the sublime remains of the antient city, the intelligence of the Italian countenance and manner, a view at once grand and fertile, and a sky that harmonized with the pageantry of the scene, inspired an interest in the place which the verses of Cotta are cited to express:

> "*Verona, qui te viderit,*
> *Et non amarit protinus,*
> *Amore perditissimo,*
> *Is, credo, se ipsum non amat,*
> *Caretque amandi sensibus,*
> *Et odit omnes gratias.*"

Vincentia, or Vicenza, is as antient as Verona: but, besides paying the same tribute to antient and modern Vandalism, to which the frontier-cities are peculiarly exposed, it was burned by the Emperor Frederic the Second, while he was at war with the Pope, and consequently exhibits no remains of its Roman glory. Palladio, however, a native of this city, appears to have supplied the want of antient monuments by numberless master-pieces of modern genius. Of these the most curious is the Teatro Olimpico, erected at the expence of an academy bearing that pompous title. This edifice is raised on the plan of the antient theatres, and bears a great resemblance to those of Pompeii and Herculaneum. The scenery is solid and immoveable, representing streets decorated with temples, palaces, and buildings of various kinds, disposed according to the rules of perspective, and producing an effect surpassing 'theatrical reality.' The Olympic Academy was instituted in 1555, by a set of gentlemen, for the encouragement of antient literature. Its members acted in the antient theatre the plays of Sophocles and Euripides, in their native language; and the spectators were thus, by the co-operation of every united delusion, carried back to Athens, and surrounded by the costume, the manners, the scene, the gods, and the heroes of antiquity.

We are called away, however, from 'the twenty palaces erected with unusual magnificence by Palladio,' and from all the glories of this noble city. Padua, the birth-place of Livy,—Padua, the university at which Petrarca, Galileo, and Columbus,

lumbus, applied each to his favourite art, and in classics, astronomy, and navigation, collected the materials that were to form their future fame and fortune, — would arrest us longer, were we not compelled to press forwards. Venice, although not of sufficient antiquity to have any direct connection with Roman story, is supposed by Mr. Eustace to contain more Roman blood, and to have preserved more of the Roman spirit, than any other state. The same love of liberty, the same patriotic passion, the same wisdom, and the same profound respect for religion, which formed the distinguishing features of the parent Republic, assured to Venice thirteen complete centuries of fame, prosperity, and independence; — a durability of grandeur unknown to any other European state. Here we cannot omit to translate a passage from a Venetian author, in which the sources of its decay, or rather of its precipitate downfall, are terribly summed up, for the instruction of nations among whom the same causes are beginning to produce the same effects:

"A certain egotism, ever fatal to republics, — a deliberate lukewarmness of that patriotic zeal which so much distinguished the aristocrats of past times, — a false clemency in the tribunals, which allowed crimes to be committed without the chastisement which the law ordains, — a certain inclination to divulge the secrets of the senate, indolently overlooked by the inquisitors of the state, — a negligence of sacred and religious rites, — an immoderate thirst for pleasures, — a scandalous impudence in the ladies, — and a libertinism triumphantly professed by the men, — were some of the disorders which reigned among a considerable body of the patricians, and of the citizens of every condition, both in Venice and in the state. The internal convulsions of the years 1762 and 1780, and the lodge of Free Masons discovered in 1785, of which many respectable subjects were members, confirm this statement. These were the extrinsic causes which brought the edifice to the imminent danger of falling to pieces." (Raccolta, Vol. i. p. 16.)

If a state could be saved by the warning voice of its authors, Venice had not at this day been prouder of her churches, palaces, and monuments, than of her liberty and power: but, as Mr. Eustaces expresses it, 'we move along in a vast funeral procession;' and it was written that Venice should not be exempted from the general law. The impartial author does not attempt to vindicate this city from the charge of licentiousness: but Venice is not Italy; and it would be as unfair to judge of Italy by Venice as to form a notion of English morals from those which prevail in a manufacturing district. Mr. Eustace leaves this city and its wonders without regret; and, pausing again to describe those of Padua, he pursues his journey to Mantua. In every excursion which he makes, he has occasion to

to admire the neatness of agriculture, and the industry and labour of the peasantry. The name of Mantua, like that of almost every Italian city, is sacred to classical remembrances; and few could range along the banks of the Mincius, or glide down its stream, without recurring to the name and poesy of Virgil which ennobled it. Mr. E.'s dissertation on the second pastoral well deserves the attention of those who have drawn from it inferences dishonourable to the poet's fame:

"*Mantua væ miseræ nimium vicina Cremonæ.*"

This latter city has produced her proportion of genius: but, of all her sons, none have more contributed to her reputation than Marcus Hieronymus Vida, the Virgil of the second Augustan era:

"A Raphael painted, and a Vida sung."

The country from Placentia improves in beauty, and if possible in fertility and in the neatness of cultivation. — Our limits we feel to be insufficient for the riches of the subject. Rome is the promised land, Rome is the reward which Mr. Eustace anticipates for the fatigues of his pilgrimage; and we are compelled to omit the notice of much curious information which may lie between the Alps and that city, in order that we too may have more liberty to expatiate with the traveller over the monuments of antient and modern days, which to this hour place Rome beyond all competition or comparison. Two stages from Parma, the traveller arrives at *forum Lepidi regium*, now called Reggio; the country of Ariosto, the copious, the fantastic Ariosto. Modena has long fostered the arts and sciences under the house of Este, and can boast in the Abbate Muratori 'perhaps the most learned antiquary, the most inquisitive, and at the same time the most impartial historian, that the last century has produced.' To Muratori succeeded, as librarian to the Duke, the Abbate Tiraboschi; whose principal work, intitled *Italia Literaria*, in sixteen volumes, unaccountably remains untranslated into our language.

'In justice to the muses of Modena, I must add the name of the playful Tassoni, who, in his Secchia Rapita, gave Boileau and Pope the hint and the model of the Lutrin, and the Rape of the Lock, taught them to trifle with the splendour of poetry without degrading it, and ennabled them, even on frivolous subjects, to display the ease, the pliancy, and the perfection of their respective languages. The important "Bucket," celebrated in this poem, was carried off from a well in one of the streets of Bologna, by a party of Modenese troops, during a petty war between these neighbouring cities, and has ever since been most carefully preserved, as an invaluable trophy, in a vault under the great tower of Modena.'

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The great pride of Bologna, independently of its many superb edifices, is its school of artists. Guido, Guercino, the Caracci, Caravaggio, Giordano, and particularly Albano, found in the churches and palaces of this city a space and magnificence which invited the display of all their powers. 'Of the latter painter it has been said that the Loves seem to have mixed his colours, and the Graces to have fashioned his forms, such is the soft glow of his tints, and such the ease and beauty of his groupes and figures.' For a luminous account of the Clementine Academy, and of the Instituto di Bologna, unrivalled monuments 'of that enthusiasm for knowlege which has always formed a distinctive feature of the Italian character,' we refer our readers to Mr. Eustace himself. Such noble endowments refuse to be described in a sentence. — 'In short,' says the author, 'the two grand features in the Bolognese character are formed by the two most honourable passions that can animate the soul, — the love of knowlege, and the love of liberty, passions which predominate through the whole series of their history, and are justly expressed on their standard, where "*Libertas*" blazes in golden letters in the centre, while "*Bononia docet*" waves in embroidery down the borders.' The University of Bologna contends for antiquity with that of Padua. If neither of these establishments be at present crowded as in former days, the deficiency must be attributed to the foundation of similar institutions among those nations, which, in ages of darkness, sent their youth to these sources of light and knowlege. In the Clementine Academy, and in the Institute, 'professors attend and deliver their lectures gratis, at stated periods, to all students on the different arts in their respective halls.' The endowments to the University are very considerable.

Passing through Loretto, the Delphi of the Roman church, we wind through the defiles of the Apennines, through Spoleto, and Otricoli, and arrive at the solitary post-house of Baccano. 'On the heights above Baccano, the postillions stopped; and, pointing to a pinnacle that appeared between two hills, exclaimed, "Roma!" That pinnacle was the cross of St. Peter's. The eternal city now rose before us.'

Mr. Eustace divides his description of Rome into two parts; the first consisting of observations made before his visit to Naples, which he appears leisurely to have finished in a longer sojourn at his return. As we shall have occasion to accompany him on his way from Naples through Rome, we shall now content ourselves with one or two extracts taken from the information contained in his first researches, and allow ourselves the liberty of resting longer in this most celebrated city on our route northward:

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'The modern city, as the reader must have already observed, possesses many features of ancient Rome. The same roads lead to her gates from the extremities of Italy, — the same aqueducts pour the same streams into her fountains, — the same great churches that received the masters of the world under the Flavian and Theodosian lines, are still open to their descendants, — and the same venerable walls that enclosed so many temples and palaces, in the reign of Aurelian, still lift their antique towers around the same circumference. Within this circumference, modern Rome lies extended, principally on the plain, and scattered thinly over the hills, bordered by villas, gardens, and vineyards.'

May modern Rome again rear her head on the seven hills, augmented by the ruins of her antient glory; and thus may the medal lately found near the capital, inscribed "*Adsertori Libertatis*" on the one side, and "*Roma resurges*" on the reverse, be the true omen of her future destinies!

Among many admirable descriptions, or rather paintings, of Roman magnificence, Mr. Eustace devotes an entire chapter to the Basilica Vaticana, or St. Peter's. The result of his observations is thus given:

'To conclude: — In magnitude, elevation, opulence, and beauty, the church of St. Peter has no rival, and bears no comparison: in neatness, cleanliness, and convenience, so necessary to the advantageous display of magnificence, if any where equalled, it can no where be surpassed. It is cool in summer, and in winter dry and warm: its portals are ever open, and every visitant, whether attracted by devotion or curiosity, may range over it at leisure, and without being molested or even noticed, either contemplate its beauties or pour out his prayers before its altars. Thus the Basilica Vaticana unites the perfection of art with the *beauty of holiness*, and may justly claim the affection and reverence of the traveller, both as the temple of taste and the sanctuary of religion.'

To a minute and elaborate description of the Basilica Vaticana, succeeds an account of the pontifical service, papal benediction, and the ceremonies in the holy week. We doubt much whether these rites are not equally new to the Catholic and the Protestant reader in England. In the Catholic edifices of London, or of Ireland, they may, it is true, be shadowed out in part: but space, pomp, splendour, and somewhat of illusion, appear to us necessary to the Roman form of worship. We are far from desiring to see the cathedral of St. Paul remain in its present disconsolate state of damp and nudity; we regret the exterior ravages made in it by that enemy to architectural elegance and grandeur, London smoke; we lament the bigotry or the apathy which rejected the overtures of Sir Joshua Reynolds and his brother-artists for giving some richness to its cold, comfortless, and forbidding interior; we regard this edifice

edifice as a mere shell, of which the size and symmetry afford ample space for magnificent and sublime objects; and we are indignant at the insults committed on the living and the dead by the greater part of its monuments. If it were proper to dedicate to God a temple of that size and external splendor, we should deem it consistent to decorate it internally in a manner corresponding with the promise which it holds out to those who pass by it; and we conceive that a dome of that magnificence either should not have been built, or should be vocal to strains worthy of its elevation; — that all the aids of eloquence in those who officiate, and of solemnity, decorum, and even of grandeur in the performance of the service itself, are but the appendages contemplated in the plan of the architect. The mere decencies of a country-church or London-chapel are there misplaced. If St. Paul's were designed to inspire any sentiment, that sentiment is grandeur, richness, and — let us not scruple to confess it, — somewhat of the rapture of illusion. It was intended to strike the senses, and to make the senses themselves additional conductors to religious dispositions: — but irresolutely it falls off from its purpose; it has not the comfort, the cleanliness, nor the neatness of a smart London chapel, nor can it boast any one property of magnificence except size. Let it not be said that the rites of the English church refuse themselves to the character above described. Those rites are holy, solemn, and sublime. The cathedral-service, if performed under the dome, and not put out of the way, as it now is, and pushed into a narrow chapel which robs it of half its effect, is capable of harmonizing with any degree of exterior pomp and splendour; and if native composers continue to fail, as they have hitherto failed, Italy, whose religious forms we have partially adopted and improved, affords to the musical compiler an exhaustless fund of the richest, noblest, sweetest, and most energetic harmonies, of which alone the volume is worthy to ascend the second dome in the universe for symmetry and extent. If, however, we advocate solemnity and grandeur as consistent with the *rite*, we can by no means allow to the *person* who officiates, the claims to distinctive splendor that surround the Roman pontiff. Surely, in the concluding part of a grand ceremony at St. Peter's, the Pope appears confounded with the Almighty, — the servant with his Lord, — the creature with the Creator:

'The Pope then offers up his devotions on his knees at the foot of the altar, and borne along in the same state as when he entered, passes down the nave of the church, and ascends by the Scala Regia to the grand gallery in the middle of the front of St. Peter's. His immediate attendants surround his person, the rest of the procession draws up on each side. The immense area and colonnade before the church are

are lined with troops and crowded with thousands of spectators. All eyes are fixed on the gallery, the chaunt of the choir is heard at a distance, the blaze of numberless torches plays round the columns, and the pontiff appears elevated on his chair of state under the middle arch. Instantly the whole multitude below fall on their knees, the cannons from St. Angelo give a general discharge, while rising slowly from his throne, he lifts his hands to heaven, stretches forth his arm, and thrice gives his benediction to the crowd, to the city, and to all mankind; a solemn pause follows, another discharge is heard, the crowd rises, and the pomp gradually disappears. This ceremony is without doubt very grand, and considered by most travellers as a noble and becoming conclusion to the majestic service that precedes it. In fact, every thing concurs to render it interesting; the venerable character of the Pontiff himself, the first bishop of the Christian church, issuing from the sanctuary of the noblest temple in the universe, bearing the holiness of the mysteries, which he has just participated, imprinted on his countenance, offering up his supplication on behalf of his flock, his subjects, his brethren, his fellow-creatures, to the Father of all, through the Saviour and Mediator of all. Surely such a scene is both edifying and impressive.'

The prostrate multitude, the discharge of cannon, the throne, and the "adoration," as another form of the Roman church is expressly termed, are not adapted to our taste.—The interposition of our remarks, however, shall not deprive our readers of an exhibition far less objectionable than the pontifical parade above cited, which may challenge the world for its resemblance:

'I must not pass over the well known exhibition that takes place in St. Peter's on the night of Good Friday, when the hundred lamps that burn over the tomb of the apostle are extinguished, and a stupendous cross of light appears suspended from the dome, between the altar and the nave, shedding over the whole edifice a soft lustre delightful to the eye, and highly favourable to picturesque representations. This exhibition is supposed to have originated in the sublime imagination of Michael Angelo, and he who beholds it will acknowledge that it is not unworthy of the inventor. The magnitude of the cross hanging as if self-supported, and like a vast meteor *streaming in the air;* the blaze that it pours forth; the mixture of light and shade cast on the pillars, arches, statues, and altars; the crowd of spectators placed in all the different attitudes of curiosity, wonder, and devotion; the processions with their banners and crosses gliding successively in silence along the nave, and kneeling around the altar; the penitents of all nations and dresses collected in groupes near the confessionals of their respective languages; a cardinal occasionally advancing through the crowd, and as he kneels humbly bending his head to the pavement; in fine, the Pontiff himself, without pomp or pageantry, prostrate before the altar, offering up his adorations in silence, form a scene singularly striking by a happy mixture of tranquillity and animation, darkness and light, simplicity and majesty.'

The

The author's residence at Rome was enlivened by frequent excursions to Tivoli, the Alban mount and lake, and to the several places in its environs which are sacred to classical recollections. To these accounts succeeds his journey to Naples. A very clear and copious narrative is given of the different attempts to drain the Pomptine marshes, from the early periods of Roman history, to the success which crowned the endeavours of Pius VI.; and which reflects more lustre on his reign than the dome of the Vatican, and all that is glorious, can confer on the memory of Sixtus Quintus. When Mr. Eustace 'crossed the Pomptine marshes, fine crops of corn covered the country to the left, and seemed to wave to the very foot of the mountains, while on the right numerous herds of cattle and horses grazed in extensive and luxuriant pastures.'

Those who expect an account of the pleasures and exaggerated extravagancies of Naples will be disappointed by the author's description of this city. From the luxurious temperature of its climate, from its position in the very garden of a garden, (if we may hazard the expression,) from the influx of foreign idlers, and the extreme facility of living, where the soil and climate unite to lavish on man all that contributes to ease and pleasure, Naples has obtained, and perhaps merited, the fame of being voluptuous beyond any other city: but that it is more debauched than Berlin or Petersburgh, or the northern capitals in general, the author totally denies. Love, the prevalent Italian passion, lights up his unhallowed fires alike in the north and in the south of Europe; while Temperance is a guardian in the south, with whom the north is not so well acquainted. If, however, Naples offend, in common with other cities, by her vices, how does she redeem them by her charities!

'Of charitable foundations in Naples, the number is above sixty. Of these seven are hospitals properly so called; thirty at least are conservatories or receptacles for helpless orphans, foundlings, &c.; five are banks for the relief of such industrious poor as are distressed by the occasional want of small sums of money: the others are either schools or confraternities. The incomes of most of these establishments, particularly of the hospitals, are in general very considerable, but seldom equal to the expenditure. The annual deficiency, how great soever it may be, is abundantly supplied by donations, most of which come from unknown benefactors.'

Indeed, greatly as Britons may boast on this head, we are unacquainted with any foundations in any country which are comparable with the hospitals *Degli Incurabili* and *Della Santissima Annunziata* at Naples.

'One remark more upon the Neapolitan hospitals, and I drop the subject. When a patient has recovered his health and strength, and is about

about to return to his usual occupations, he receives from the establishment a sum of money sufficient to compensate for the loss of time and labour unavoidable during his illness; a most benevolent custom, and highly worthy of imitation. A long illness or dangerous accident deprives a poor labourer or artisan so long of his ordinary wages, and throws him so far back in his little economy, that he cannot without great difficulty recover himself and regain a state of comfort. From this inconvenience the small sum granted by the charity of the hospital relieves him, and restores him to his trade in health, strength, and spirits.'

We would willingly accompany the author in his excursions to Virgil's tomb, the grotto of Posilipo, the Lago d'Agnano, the voluptuous Puteoli, Pompeii, Herculaneum, and Pæstum: but it is time that we close this part of our analysis, in the country which afforded to Virgil the delicious leisure that he courted, which gave birth to Tasso, and which inspired the rapture of his song.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *Voyage dans le Nord de l'Europe,* &c.; *i. e.* Travels in the North of Europe in 1807; consisting of Excursions, partly in Sweden, but chiefly in Norway; with a Description of the Manners and Customs of the Natives, as well as of the most remarkable Scenery in the Country. To which is subjoined an Appendix, containing Historical and Physical Remarks, and Itineraries. By A. Lamotte. With Plates, and a Map of Norway. 4to. pp. 244. 2l. 2s. Boards. Hatchard, London. 1813.

A DESCRIPTION of the interior of Norway appeared to this author, we are told, in the light of a literary desideratum. Swisserland has been of late years not only very difficult of access, but has been already so fully delineated that the public attention seemed to turn with some eagerness towards a quarter of less notoriety; while Norway, in M. Lamotte's opinion, bears in some points a strong resemblance to Swisserland, and in others may claim a superiority over that magnificent region. A wide difference certainly exists in point of the smiling part of the scenery of nature; since, thinly as Norway is peopled, she is so deficient in cultivation as to be obliged to depend for a portion of her subsistence on Jutland, and the island of Zealand: but, with regard to what may be called the gigantic features of the works of nature, the height of rocks and mountains, the depth of rivers, the majestic aspect of green forests, and the picturesque contour of valleys, Norway is fully equal to Swisserland; and in the striking effect of the *Aurora Borealis*, she possesses a title to decided pre-eminence.

Such

Such were the reasons which, in concurrence with the troubled state of the central part of Europe in the summer of 1807, led to the selection of Scandinavia as the proper scene of travelling for Sir Thomas Dyke Ackland, and another young gentleman from Oxford University, who wished to make a tour under the guidance of M. Lamotte. Having formed the requisite arrangements for passports and introductory letters, the party left Harwich in the packet, on the first of July, and arrived at Gottenburgh in the course of a few days. At this place, they were more gratified by the appearance of the streets and buildings, than by any attractive quality on the part of the inhabitants; who, with the exception of the British settlers, appear to pass their time in a state of monotonous indolence. Notwithstanding the cold of winter, the stoves here used are of such a size as to make the rigour of the season less felt than in our country: but the inhabitants indulge too much in this respect, and deprive themselves of that freshness of complexion which would otherwise form one of the most pleasing evidences of their local situation.

'For such as are born here, this may be a very good country, personal security being complete, and assaults on life, or depredations on property, being almost unknown. The natives take, in the warm season, their afternoon nap, according to the Italian style, and seem very averse to be put out of their usual course. Notwithstanding the long continuance of sun-shine, the heat is not disagreeable even in July and August: but strawberries, cherries, peas, and beans, are much later than in England. One of the most remarkable circumstances respecting Gottenburgh is the intimacy of its connection with London; the fashionable people, whether ladies or gentlemen, are accustomed to dress in the English style; and the latter even have their clothes made in London, sending over their measures on cards, on which the different particulars are marked very minutely. Another notable fact at Gottenburgh is the surprising abundance of lobsters, which are shipped, by thousands and ten of thousands, for the British metropolis.'

From Gottenburgh the author took the direct road to the frontiers of Norway, and soon found occasion to remark the contrast in travelling between England and other countries. The only carriage which could be obtained was an old heavy chariot, which proved inconvenient and even dangerous from its weight. The steep ascents and slight bridges of Norway require a light carriage; and travellers should take the precaution of carrying harness with them, since nothing but ropes, or rather rope-ends, can be procured from the peasantry who supply the post-horses. The charge for horses seems at first to be trifling, compared with the English rates: but various additions to it are to be made, viz. the expence of an *avant courier*,

the repairs of the carriage, drink-money to the peasants, and, particularly, those overcharges to which a foreigner who is unacquainted with the language is unavoidably exposed. — Sir Thomas Ackland, who was fond of drawing, and whose productions so greatly embellish this volume, soon found an adequate object for his pencil in the famous cataracts of Trollhätte *: where the river Gotha, shortly after it has issued from the Wenner lake, falls about thirty feet almost perpendicular in the midst of rocks; a cascade which is repeated three or four times in the space of a mile. To avoid this formidable obstacle to the communication by water between the port of Gottenburgh and the Wenner lake, a canal has been lately dug, at great expence, through the rocky ground adjacent to the cataracts; in which the descent of water is conducted by locks of unusual height, a fall of 110 feet being divided among eight locks in the course of a very short distance.

Quitting Trollhätte, the attention of the travellers was attracted by the town of Frederickshall, the first place of consequence within the Norwegian frontier, and remarkable for the death of Charles XII. in 1718. M. Lamotte sets out by apprizing his readers that he has published his book in French, because he could not find in an acquired language that command of animated style which the subject seemed to him to require. He is indeed a true Frenchman in his transitions and effusions, and would have considered the fate of the redoubted hero of the north as a delightful topic for such a display, had he not, a few pages before, (p. 15.) indulged in a high-flown effusion on his own arrival on Norwegian ground.

'*Christiana*, or Christiansand.—This town, formerly called Opslo, is situated at the inland extremity of an arm of the sea nearly a hundred miles in length, and is the capital of Agerhuus, one of the four provinces into which Norway is divided. The other provinces are those of Bergen, Christiansand, and Drontheim. Christiana is a well built town, the streets being wide, and crossing each other at right angles; the houses are composed generally of brick, not high but extensive; and the apartments are spacious and well lighted. This place is in the 60th (58th) degree of north latitude, and carries on a considerable trade, its harbour having a great depth of water. The tide is scarcely perceptible; so that the warehouses are placed close to the water's edge, and goods are shipped and landed from the vessels with facility. The water is brackish. The principal articles of trade, here as in the other parts of the north, are iron, pitch, and deals. The aspect of the neighbouring country is singular, being as uneven as the ocean in a tempest. On the one hand we behold naked rocks close to the sea-side; on the other, hills rising abruptly, with narrow glens between them. The distant horizon is terminated by

* See our last Volume, p. 121.

chains

chains of lofty mountains, diversified by rocks and forests of pines. In summer, the heat in this northern region is uncomfortable, and pernicious in its effect from the long duration of sun-shine. It may indeed be said that, in June and July, the inhabitants have scarcely any night, or at least any darkness; and the consequence is that milk turns sour, and fish is spoiled, in twenty-four hours.

'After having proceeded northwards several days from Christiana, we arrived at romantic scenery in the neighbourhood of the village of Moss-huus. It would be difficult to pourtray with fidelity the singular and sublime prospects which presented themselves to our view, along the upper bank of the lake Mioss; and the farther we advanced, the grander the objects seemed to become, and the more they harmonized with each other. The mountains were more lofty and rugged, the trees more stately, and the waters of the river Lough more rapid. The surrounding forests, apparently as antient as the ground on which they stand, had the effect of inspiring a certain religious awe, suspended as we were between earth and sky, on a ridge of rock several hundred feet perpendicular, with a road of only ten or twelve feet in width. The first part of the lake is perhaps more striking than the rest; the river Lough, swelled by the melting snow, precipitating itself like a torrent into the basins beneath, in the midst of rocks and cataracts. On the right and left, the traveller beholds masses of green mountains crowned with forests, and rising higher and higher in picturesque forms, until they mount beyond the reach of human sight. In front, is a deep and narrow valley, resembling an immense ravine; while at different spots we perceive formidable openings, proofs of the concussions of former ages. Amid these wild and desolate scenes, with what joy does the eye fix itself on traces of cultivation! Such relief happily is not wanting, the industry of the agriculturist having exerted itself wherever the soil appeared to promise success to his labours. At the top of an abrupt ridge, we behold a crop of barley almost ripe; while in the hollows below, women and children are seen making their scanty portions of hay. On the flat spots beside the lake and rivers, are some good fields of rye, oats, and occasionally of wheat. A solitary farm-house, with its red roof, is perceived sometimes half a mile up a mountain; while, farther down, we have the cheerful prospect of the hamlet and parish-church. On the low ground, and in the neighbourhood of the water, a humble cottage, covered with turf or the bark of trees, is now and then discerned: this is the dwelling of a fisherman. The tract of land which excited these observations is the entrance to the famous valley of Guldbrandal; a district remarkable, even in this primitive country, for the manners of its inhabitants, and the singularity of the appearances of nature.'

The Guldbrandal valley is about a hundred miles in length, extending northwards from Lake Mioss to the foot of the range of mountains called Dovre-fell; which, from their great height, have been called the Alps of Norway. This valley is traversed in all its extent by the river Lough, the sides of which consist frequently of masses of steep rock almost as perpendicular as a

wall. The height of these stupendous banks is much greater than it appears; since the eye, in this region of wonders, becomes so accustomed to large objects as to lose the habit of accurate measurement. The bridges consist of trunks of trees laid across the deep hollows through which the Lough holds its course. On one of these, called Strom-broe, the weight of the carriage had the effect of causing to M. Lamotte and his friends no very agreeable sensation, when on looking down they perceived that the depth was not less than a hundred feet.

'The inhabitants are extremely plain in their apparel; a cap of red wool, and a coat or rather cloak of white cloth, forming their constant dress. The latter reaches down to the heels; and a red or green waistcoat is worn under it, with breeches of black leather, and stockings and mittens of woollen manufacture. Such has been for ages the humble dress of these children of nature. They appear to have something of the same predilection for a mixture of colour in their dress, which the Scotch Highlanders have for tartan. In personal stature and strength, they are inferior to the inhabitants of more level countries; their beards and eye-brows are red; their complexion is pale, and their lips are often thick. The women have delicate features, and are pale without being white: but they are frequently freckled and sun-burnt. Both sexes have, however, a great portion of gaiety, being inquisitive, familiar, and talkative. As to personal safety, no country can surpass this, since the inhabitants have no wish to be greater or richer than their forefathers. The prevailing vice is the habit of intoxication; which is sometimes carried to such excess, that the men render themselves unfit for labour at an early hour of the day. Their habits, however, are strictly religious; and it is edifying to see the punctuality with which both sexes repair to church on Sunday from a great distance. The curate or pastor, as he is called, being necessarily educated at Copenhagen, is a man of some information, and of very considerable consequence among his humble hearers. — The traveller who is fond of delicate provision, whether bread, beer, or butcher's meat, will find in this region very little to please his appetite: but eggs are good and plentiful, and river-fish is likewise at command: milk is excellent: but the poultry are small in size and deficient in quantity. The beds are bad, and as full of bugs as those of Paris: — no blankets are used in this country, the body being covered at night with sacking stuffed with feathers.'

Leaving these scenes of primitive manners and magnificent objects of nature, the travellers proceeded northwards to the town of Drontheim, or, as it is called in Norway, Trondheim. This place is situated in about 64° north latitude, on the side of a capacious bay formed by the river Nider. The recent discussions on the subject of the cession to Sweden of Drontheim and its territory, or, as it is called, its bishoprick, have made this part of the country an object of some attention in a political point of view. Drontheim is a finer town than might be expected

expected in so remote a quarter, being equal to Christiana in extent, and superior to it in beauty. The streets are regular and wide, and the houses in general built of brick. It is a very old city, and was long the seat of government when Norway formed a separate kingdom; and it is still the winter-residence of the principal public officers, and of the gentry of this part of Norway. When M. Lamotte was there, it had the semblance of a fortification, with respect to ramparts, cannon, and a small garrison: but war had been unknown for ninety years, and all was allowed to wear the garb of peace. Drontheim is, however, capable of considerable resistance, being very nearly insulated by the waters of the sea or of the river.

From this pleasant station, the travelling party made excursions into the interior, and were much gratified both with the hospitality of the inhabitants and the grandeur of the objects of nature. They paid a visit to the copper-mines, and flattered themselves, some time afterward, with being on the eve of ending their Norwegian tour pleasantly, and passing into Sweden, when they were suddenly arrested, and obliged to do penance for our hostile conduct to Denmark in the autumn of 1807. Being brought as prisoners to Christiana, they underwent, there and at the town of Kongsberg, or Conisberg, a confinement of some duration; though with fewer circumstances of rigour than might have been anticipated from the exasperated spirit of the people. They had excited considerable suspicion by a frequent exercise of the pencil; an employment which admits of no interpretation from a Norwegian peasant except that of taking plans for a subsequent attack on his country. Of Kongsberg, one of the places of their detention, M. Lamotte gives the following account:

'This town is situated on the right bank of a river which forms in the vicinity several cascades. The houses have in general tiled roofs, and the communication with the country on the opposite side of the river is kept up by means of two wooden bridges. As to the surrounding scenery, it is of the *sombre* kind, being little else than peaks of rocks without vegetation. In the neighbourhood, are silver mines of considerable repute; and the eye observes, interspersed, the scattered cottages of the miners. The popular habits and disposition are similar to those of the rest of Norway; displaying much gaiety, frankness, and fondness for conversation, accompanied by an unfortunate attachment to strong liquors: the effect of which vice seems to be visible in their physical structure, their persons possessing neither the size nor the vigour of men of greater temperance. The population of Kongsberg consists of between three and four thousand, of whom the half are Germans, and employed in the mines. They have of late been exposed to great distress, and have been obliged to apply to government in consequence of many of the mines being abandoned, the produce not paying the expence of working.

'During three months which we have passed in this country, the weather has been invariably fine, the appearance at night being *superb*, and the stars shining with a splendour seldom seen in England. It deserves to be noticed that, in consequence of the number of windows, the houses throughout Norway are commonly very light. Snow fell for the first time about the middle of October, but it is a current proverb that it falls nine times before it stays on the ground; that is, thaws are frequent until the end of November, after which the snow generally remains for five or six months.'

The travellers, having obtained their liberty on representing that they were academics performing a tour of instruction, employed the remaining interval of good weather in taking a hasty view of a part of Sweden. They visited Stockholm, Upsal, and the famous mines of Dannemora, at the distance of forty miles from the latter city, and ninety from the former. The cold now becoming intense, it was expedient to lose no time in their return; they therefore bent their course once more to Gottenburgh; and, after some detention from bad weather, they accomplished their passage home, and were landed in Suffolk in January 1808.

In the concluding part of the volume, the author makes some observations on the political, civil, and religious condition of the Norwegians; and the appendix furnishes several papers, of a very mixed description, relating chiefly to the manners, prejudices, and singularities of that people. We cannot pay M. Lamotte the compliment of having made the best disposition of his materials; nor even that of being sufficiently attentive to accuracy. In giving, for example, an account of the locks on the canal of Trollhätte, he says that they are 'eight, some of which have a fall of sixty feet;' yet he adds immediately that 'the fall in the whole of the locks is a hundred and ten feet.' Again, in speaking of the heat in July and August, he represents that as 'not disagreeable' at Gottenburgh which at Christiana he found 'excessive.' These inaccuracies are evidently the result of inattention; and a similar want of reflection on the principles of history has led him (p. 15.) into the common error that Norway was, in former ages, much more populous than at present. '*Tu nourrissois alors*,' he says, '*une population beaucoup plus nombreuse; mais les pays, comme les hommes, ont aussi leur durée*,' &c. His language, moreover, as far as we may judge of a foreign tongue, is not particularly elegant. Yet, altogether, the work affords considerable local information respecting a country which has hitherto been very little described. Norway, as Mr. L. justly remarks, has been merely sketched by the serious pen of Mr. Coxe, or the lighter pen of M. de la Tocnaye, who traversed its coasts. As to the erudite dissertations

tions of Pontoppidan, they are less fitted, he remarks, for the public than for an academy of naturalists, or for admirers of the marvellous.

We have mentioned that the volume is illustrated by pleasing views, drawn by Sir Thomas Ackland, and we should add that they are neatly and spiritedly etched by G. Cooke. A Chart of the southern part of Norway is also given.

ART. III. *Fauna Orcadensis;* or, the Natural History of the Quadrupeds, Birds, Reptiles, and Fishes, of Orkney and Shetland. By the Rev. George Low, Minister of Birsa and Haray. *From a Manuscript in the Possession of* Wm. Elford Leach, M.D., F.L.S., &c. 4to. pp. 250. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

THE few authentic notices which the editor has been enabled to collect, respecting the author of this publication, may be comprized within a very narrow compass. He was born, it should seem, in the parish of Edzel, and county of Forfar, in 1746, and prosecuted his studies in the Universities of Aberdeen and St. Andrew's. When acting in the capacity of domestic tutor at Stromness, he was invited to accompany the present Sir Joseph Banks and the late Dr. Solander, in their excursion among the Orkney and Shetland isles, which those gentlemen visited on their return from the voyage which proved fatal to the unfortunate Captain Cook. On the 14th December, 1774, Mr. Low was ordained minister of the parish of Birsa and Haray, in Pomona, one of the Orkneys. In the year following, he married Miss Helen Tyrie, only daughter of a neighbouring clergyman, but who died in child-bed before another year had passed: an event which deeply affected the author's spirits, and induced him, during the remainder of his life, to cultivate with ardour the science of nature; to which he had early evinced a predilection, and in which, notwithstanding his slender resources of every description, he made a very respectable proficiency. He was encouraged

' To draw up both a *Fauna Orcadensis* and a *Flora Orcadensis*. The former is now presented to the public: the latter has entirely disappeared. He likewise prepared for the press "A Tour through the Islands of Orkney and Shetland, containing Hints relating to their Ancient, Modern, and Natural History." He likewise undertook and executed a translation of Torfæus's History of Orkney. Mr. Low died in 1795.

' The principal part of his MSS., including the Fauna, the Tour, and the Translation of Torfæus, together with his Zoological Collections, (in which was a specimen of ASTERIAS *Caput Medusæ*, taken in the Orkney Seas, and now in the editor's possession,) fell into the

hands of the late eminent antiquary, Mr. GEORGE PATON of Edinburgh, at whose sale, after his death, they were purchased by different individuals.

'The editor cannot conclude this advertisement without acknowledging the liberality of the booksellers, in readily undertaking to publish this *Orkney Fauna*, in a form and style calculated to do credit to the unfortunate author.'

The only quadrupeds particularized in this volume are, the Horse, Ox, Sheep, Hog, Cat, Dog, Otter, Weasel, Seal, Rabbit, the Black and the Brown Rat, the Field-Mouse, the Short-tailed Field-Mouse, the Common Mouse, and the Shrew. General descriptions of these animals, which are so familiar to ordinary observation, are very properly avoided: but circumstances more or less interesting, and connected with their local situation, or relative to their economical uses, are carefully noted.

Mr. L. informs us that the Orcadian Horses are of that small, brisk, and active breed which occurs in the northern Highlands of Scotland. They are different from the *shelties*, or dwarfish poneys of Shetland, and are at once more hardy and much better suited to the climate and the state of agriculture in Orkney, than those of the larger races of the low countries. The extreme carelessness of the natives, in rearing and keeping these useful animals, is truly astonishing; and it is scarcely less surprising that their notorious negligence in this respect should pass wholly unnoticed by our Rev. Faunist.

Although the breed of Cows is not distinctly specified, we learn incidentally that the beef is not so large as in the more southerly countries. A part of the rent of land being usually paid in butter, a considerable number of cows is kept by the farmers: but oxen are very much neglected, and seldom suffered to live beyond the third year. The ordinary price of beef, when the author made his observations, was a penny or a penny farthing per pound.

The Sheep, which are also of a diminutive size, are never housed; and they are exposed, while lambs, to the rapacity of eagles and ravens.

'About midsummer there is a particular day published for rowing, when all the men in the parish, attended with their dogs, turn out, and drive the whole flock, without any preparation of washing, into narrow pens, and from thence, I may say, to the place of execution, where the wool is torn (not shorn) off their backs, an operation which brings the whole blood into their skin, and is not only disgusting, but, if the season proves harsh, is the cause of great destruction. But, however cruel it may seem, it is almost the only notice that is taken of these useful animals, by their unfeeling masters, till that time twelvemonth.'

In

In former times, the management of the sheep-flocks appears to have been regulated by legislative enactments, and formed an important feature in the public police of these islands. In spite of the harsh usage which they experience, many of the Orkney sheep bring two, and some of them three lambs, at a time. 'The mutton is here in general but ordinary, owing to the sheep feeding much on sea-ware, to procure which these creatures shew a wonderful sagacity; for no sooner has the tide of ebb begun to run, but they, though at a great distance, immediately betake themselves full speed, one and all, to the shore, where they continue till it begins to flow, when they as regularly retire.'—The circumstance of pregnant ewes, which are put into the uninhabited holms, or small islands, that they may breed in greater quiet, dying suddenly on the appearance of a man and a dog, is a singular fact in the natural history of the sheep, which Mr. Low has entirely overlooked: but, if our recollection be accurate, it is distinctly asserted in some of the statistical accounts, and in Dr. Barry's History of the Orkney Islands.

The Orkney Hog is a very small-sized variety of the common sort, and is suffered to roam at large, even during winter. Of its hair, notwithstanding its shortness, the fowlers make those ropes by which they suspend one another from the rocky cliffs; alleging that they are less readily fretted than those that are formed of the finest hemp. 'However this may be, many of them are lost in these dreadful attempts, few of their professed climbers living out their days.'

Cats are apt to run wild, especially in the neighbourhood of rabbit-warrens, in which they sometimes commit great havoc: but Mr. Low ridicules the tales of their incapacity to live in particular islands, such as Græmsey, Damsey, &c.

'There are several varieties of the dog kind to be found here, as elsewhere, trained for different purposes, as the water and land spaniels for fowling, and curs for giving warning by barking; but the most common are the shepherd's dog, and mongrels from it, called in general collys, or sheep-dogs. These are trained up to a sport, which (says Mr. Wallace) is "both strange and delectable," namely, hunting of sheep. The master of the dog has him in his arms, and points out the sheep, which he very nimbly seizes from all the flock, and, without much hurt, detains it till released by his master. This custom had its inconveniences, and oft-times it happened, as it does still, that the dog which could seize a sheep for his master could do the same for himself. To prevent this, in the country acts, it was statute *, "That nae man shall keep running dogis, that runs frae house to house, or through the country, cheasing their neighbour's sheip;" and this under the highest penalties.'

* Country Acts, MSS.

In

In opposition to the assertion of Linné, that Otters are never found in the sea, Mr. Low, who carefully examined those which haunt the fresh and the salt water, among the islands, says that he could perceive no difference between them.

As instances of *curiosity* in the common Seals, it is mentioned that, when people are passing in a boat, these animals often come close up to them, staring at them for a long time together; and that they seem to listen with attention or wonder to loud speaking or ringing of bells. We might add that they are observed to gaze with pleasure on flames, and to be delighted with a thunder-storm, and the consequent rain; sitting out of the water during their continuance, and appearing to be struck with the convulsion of the elements. The Cornish fishermen also decoy them by hallooing, to within gun-shot; and the creatures will continue to listen to the sound for many seconds. Dr. Walker has even asserted that they are very fond of music.—From Mr. Low's observations, it appears that they are occasionally liable to some contagious and fatal disorder; many of them having been discovered thrown ashore, either sick or dead, on the coasts of Orkney and Caithness. The affected individuals were harassed with frequent coughing, uttered a sort of plaintive moan, and, when drifted dead ashore, were much inflated; but, when cut up, presented only skin and bone.—The *Phoca barbata*, and perhaps also the *bicolor*, should have obtained a place in the present Fauna.

Rabbits abound in all the sandy districts: but it is supposed that, on a fair calculation, they will be found to be of more detriment than benefit to the proprietors of the soil.

The black Rat has been nearly exterminated by the brown, except in South Ronaldsha, where the latter has not yet made its appearance. 'The story, which Sir Robert Sibbald tells us from Cicero, of their leaving a house before it falls, is here very prevalent; numbers of instances given as usual in such cases; and great expressions of wonder, if the fact be questioned! Whatever is in this, it is certain rats entirely quit particular houses, and that for years, without any apparent reason, as I have often had occasion to observe, though the catastrophe did not always fulfil the prediction!'

About a hundred species of birds are particularized in the present publication: but, as the manners of the feathered tribes are with more difficulty subjected to human observation than those of quadrupeds, the portion of appropriate remarks, in this division of the author's treatise, is unavoidably smaller than in the preceding. The defect, it may be alleged, is somewhat needlessly compensated by descriptions of species which have been repeatedly described: yet we ought to recollect that, at the

the period when Mr. Low prepared his materials, an acquaintance with the details of British ornithology was by no means general, nor very easily acquired. According to his observation, the Black Eagle and the gentle Falcon, which Sir Robert Sibbald reports to be indigenous, and the Kite, which Mr. Wallace says is common in the Orkneys, are not to be found in those islands.

The article *Stare* is not undeserving of transcription, and will furnish a fair example of Mr. Low's simple and rather careless manner of writing:

'This is a harmless, prattling, mimic bird, found in thousands in the Orkneys; breeds in old houses, churches, the sea-rocks, &c.; seems to be a favourite in Orkney, as few houses are built but they have several nobs in the wall for its convenience, of which it always, as if sensible of the favour, avails itself, and repays it with a song, and a deal of its antic mimicry.

'I have often been much diverted to hear a couple of cock stares, perched upon two opposite chimneys, trying to excel one another in imitating all the noises below, the crowing of cocks, cackle of hens, barking of dogs, mewing of cats, particular notes of different wild birds; all this intermixed with its own natural harsh discordant squeak; insomuch, that a macaroni from every nation in Europe, placed together to dispute concerning some important alteration to be made on a button-hole, or the best method of scenting a bouquet, could not make a more dissonant jangle than these birds, when in the humour of mimicry.

'The stare feeds on worms and insects, and in winter, when the earth is locked up with frost, comes down to the sea-side, where it lives on the * sea-louse, (as it is here called,) insinuating the point of its bill under the stones, and hastily opening it, jerks the stone over, immediately seizing what may be underneath.

'The flesh of the stare is very bitter, but this may, in some measure, be remedied, by wringing off the head of the bird immediately as caught, that the blood, in which the bad taste is, may run from it. Young stares are tolerable eating.

'The bird is well known, and as well described in Mr. Pennant's British Zoology, a book in so many hands, as to render a particular description here unnecessary; only I shall observe, that the young birds do not acquire their perfect colours for the first year, but are of an uniform dusky brown, with a yellowish stripe running from the lower jaw down to the breast; and, besides, may be known by their particular note. I have heard of one example of a stare, in the nest of which there was (were) four young, two of which were black, the others grey, and grew whiter as they grew older.

'I imagine stares breed twice a year, as the first brood has left the nest now in June, and I have observed them very busy in repairing their nests, and rearing another in August.'

'* Cancer Locusta, Lin. Syst. Nat. 1055.'

Nothing

Nothing is here said concerning the migration of this species, a question which is still unsettled among ornithologists. From the jarring testimonies, however, of some able observers, we should be inclined to believe that it is rather an *erratic* bird than a stated *migrant*, and that, in some countries, it frequently shifts its quarters, in quest of more abundant supplies of food. Of the Water-Rail, the author had only a single specimen transmitted to him, without obtaining any information respecting the spot on which it was found. It may, therefore, be merely an incidental visitant of Orkney, like many other birds, which have been occasionally driven thither by storms, but which are excluded from the present list.

Without giving countenance to the improbable tales related by Wallace, Sir Robert Sibbald, and others, concerning the breeding of the *Colymbus glacialis*, or Northern Diver, the present learned author, with his usual honesty, states the difficulties with which the subject is encumbered, and does not pretend to resolve them. The Orcadians very generally believe that this bird hatches its eggs under its wings, and that it never leaves the sea; a notion which is countenanced by the credulity of Pontoppidan. If we are rightly informed, however, it never breeds either in Orkney or Shetland; and Horrebow, in his history of Iceland, mentions, without any affectation of mystery, that it is unmolested in that island, the natives giving themselves no trouble to search for either its nest or its brood, its flesh and eggs being alike unfit to be eaten. It builds, he adds, in remote places, near fresh water. Yet, from the shortness of its wings, the process of incubation is probably very tardily performed. The vulgar likewise believe that the Immer hatches under water, from the circumstance, perhaps, of its nest having been found among flags and reeds that happened to be surrounded by water. Most of the *Colymbi*, indeed, which have a very aukward gait on land, have their nests placed so near to the water, that they can readily betake themselves to the element which is best adapted to their progressive motion. This, as Mr. Low observes, is particularly the case with the *Septentrionalis*, or Red-throated Diver. The conjugal attachment manifested by this species is thus recorded:

'The male and female of this species are constant companions. I have observed this whole season a couple of them which build in Hoy, and have made the harbour of Stromness their haunt, to come every night thither about six or seven o'clock, seldom sooner or later, and immediately betake themselves to fishing for about an hour, when they withdraw to the same place they came from. These birds have a vast liking to one another; if one is shot, the other may be seen hovering about the place for some days, and, often venturing too near in its search, shares the same fate. It is then very pitiful to consider

consider the wistful looks the survivor casts around it to see for its faithful mate, and with what anxiety it swims round and round, still keeping its eye on the place where it was taken on shore; but this is in some measure to be observed in others of the swimming birds in breeding time, though not so much as in this; however, I have observed a male goosander, when the female was shot, continue a long while near the same place, probably still expecting his mate.'

Of the defensive prowess of the Skua Gull (*Larus Cataractes*), we are favoured with these notices:

'As I approached the summits of the high mountains, I came near the skua's quarters, which are affixed on the very peaks. I no sooner approached but I was attacked with so great fury, that every one of those who were with me, as well as myself, were obliged to do him obeisance at every stroke. He beat my dog entirely out of the pit, insomuch that he was obliged to run in among our legs for shelter, and could not be forced out again, for though bonxie (as he is here called) had some regard for us while we kept together, on him he had no mercy, every whip he fetched him made his own wings crack, and the dog crouch into the hollows of the moor, till we came up and relieved him. I followed one of them to some distance from the rest, which made me part good company, and received some very rude salutes for my imprudence from three of these birds that made at me with the utmost rage. I defended myself the best way I could with my gun, fired several times at them, but, as none dropped, the report did not startle them in the least, rather seemed to enrage them the more. When the inhabitants are looking after their sheep on the hills, the skua often attacks them in such a manner that they are obliged to defend themselves with cudgels held above their heads, on which it often kills itself.

'The method of life is much the same as in the parasitic gull, (our former species,) only this attacks the larger kind of gulls as the other does the lesser. By the most minute inquiry, I could not find that it ever meddled either with its congeners or others to destroy them. Its fury seems to be more defensive than offensive. When we meet it at sea it seems to be a stupid-like bird, and often swims within an oar's length of the boat.

'In Foula this is a privileged bird: no man will nor dare shoot it, under the penalty of sixteen shillings and eight-pence sterling, nor destroy its eggs. When they meet it at sea, whatever fish they have in the boat, skua always gets a share, and all this out of gratitude for beating off the eagle, who dares not venture to prey on the island during the breeding season. Skua, indeed, is not so strong as the former, but much more nimble, strikes at him without mercy with such effect that he makes the eagle roar aloud; and his retreat is so sudden as to avoid all danger from his clumsier antagonist.

'I asked particularly whether skua did not sometimes pay himself for defending their flocks, by taking a lamb now and then, but one and all assured me they had never seen or heard of a single instance of his doing so.'

The

The Shear-water, or Shanks-puffin, (*Procellaria puffinus,*) is more prized by the rock-men than almost any other prey:

'For this prey, one sitting on the brink of the rock, with a coil of rope made of hair on his arm, will let his neighbour many fathoms over the steepest rocks, such as would make others shudder only to look at, and yet these people think no more of it than an airing; and though few years pass without some or other of them perishing, yet that never deters the survivors, — such an influence has the love even of a little gain on the human mind, that not the most imminent dangers can deter them from pursuing it at all events, even though death stares them in the face every moment they are on these expeditions. The smallest accident may ruin them,—the untwisting of the rope, — the slipping of a noose, — the rubbing of it on the rugged rocks,—all may (be) and sometime are fatal to the climbers; yet so venturesome are they, that they often let one another down small heights with straw ropes. Well might the poet call this a "horrid trade;" it is really dreadful to see people let over a rock several hundred fathoms' height, with the deep below them, supported only by the single arm of their comrades, who have nothing to rest themselves against, but must depend on their strength for both their preservation. Sometimes, indeed, both slip together.'

The list of Reptiles is limited to the Frog and Toad,—animals of such common occurrence, that Mr. Low very properly dispenses with describing them. Prompted, however, by those feelings of humanity which appear to have characterized him, he reminds the experimental tormentors of the larger animals, that the tail of the living tadpole is an excellent object for the solar microscope, and admirably adapted for illustrating the circulation of the blood; while he pleads in favour of the harmless disposition of the toad, which is often persecuted from the mere prevalence of ignorance and prejudice.

Of the Cetaceous tribes, the species here enumerated are, the common, the round-lipped, and the beak-headed Whale; the great-headed, the round-headed, and the high-finned Cachalot; the Porpesse; and the Grampus. The beak-headed whale we suspect to be the *Delphinous melas* of Neill, which occasionally visits the Orkneys in large troops.

The Cartilaginous Fishes which the author specifies are, the Skate, sharp-nosed Ray, Thornback, piked Dog-fish, basking Shark, white Shark, lesser Dog-fish, Sturgeon, Lump-fish, Sea-snail, longer, shorter, and little Pipe-fish, and the Fishing Frog; and the Osseous kinds are, the Eel, Conger, Wolf-fish, Launce, Cod, Haddock, Coal-fish, Pollack, Whiting, Ling, Whistle-fish, Torsk, the spotted, purple, and viviparous Blenny, black Goby, Father Lasher, Opah, Holibut, Plaice, Flounder, Sole, Turbot, Wrasse, three-spined and fifteen-spined Stickle-back, Mackerel, Salmon, Bull-trout, Trout, Pan, (samlet,) Charr, Grayling,

ling, Argentine, Herring, Gemmeous Dragonet, Gray Gurnard, and Saury. Few of these have suggested any observations that can at present be regarded as new, or particularly striking. The account of the Coal-fish, however, derives considerable interest from the circumstance of its extensive consumption in these northern islands. The *Torsk* of the Shetlanders is also deserving of our notice, because it is rarely found farther south than the Pentland Frith, and appears to have been unknown to some of our most popular writers on Natural History. It is the *Gadus brosme* of recent ichthyologists; though some persons have strangely confounded it with *Gadus callarias*, or *Dorse*, having been probably misled by the English name. When properly cured, the Torsk is preferred to either Cod or Ling.

It does not appear that the insects and vermes entered into the author's conception of the present Fauna; which is the more to be regretted, because his situation was peculiarly favourable for the investigation of many of the marine zoophytes and lithophytes, whose history now forms a very interesting department of animal physiology. If the editor has courage to visit the dreary shores of the north, he is, we understand, eminently qualified to supply this defect. In the mean-time, by giving publicity to Mr. Low's manuscript, he has rendered no inconsiderable service to the study of British zoology. We have also reason to believe that he has performed his task with the strictest regard to fidelity; and we are certain that he is innocent of a very prevalent literary transgression, that of overloading his author's text with a mass of annotation. Some readers will perhaps be disposed to think that he has erred in the opposite extreme; since he has not even deigned to explain the few provincial terms which occur in the text, such as *fog*, for *moss*, *skirle* for a *shrill scream*, *riddle* for *sieve*, *anent* for *concerning*, &c. He has, however, rendered a substantial act of justice to the memory of his author, by committing the MS. to the press, since a writer of some name had very freely availed himself of its contents without acknowlegement. The success of Mr. Low's labours may also contribute to stimulate the Scotish clergy to explore the productions of their respective parishes, at a period when the sources of information are distributed into many channels, and when opportunities are afforded to students of divinity for attending gratuitous courses of lectures on the various branches of Natural History.

ART.

ART. IV. *The World before the Flood*, a Poem, in Ten Cantos; with other occasional Pieces. By James Montgomery, Author of "The Wanderer of Switzerland," the "West Indies*," &c. 8vo. pp. 304. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

BRIEF and unsatisfactory as are the notices of our antediluvian ancestors, given in the first five chapters of the book of Genesis, yet is it not a kind of presumption, even in a poet, to attempt a supplement to this part of the Mosaic history? To effect an object of this nature, Fancy and Imagination must be put in requisition, and so far it falls within the province of the Muse: but, as the subject is "hedged with sanctity," liberties must not be rashly taken with it. Mr. Montgomery's view of *the World before the Flood* is sketched after the manner of several modern Scripture-epics, and is liable to some of the objections with which critics have repeatedly assailed those compositions. In more respects than one, it has disappointed us; and we must urge against him the apparently captious complaint that he has amplified too much in some parts and not enough in others. It is an anachronism revolting to modern faith to transfuse the Psalms of David, the Prophesies of Isaiah, and the bright discoveries of the Gospel, into the Pentateuch; thus enlarging the predictions of Enoch so as to supersede the necessity of subsequent revelations. After the lapse of nearly six thousand years, we look back to the primitive state of the human race through a series of divine dispensations: but we destroy the character of the primitive age, violate all probability, and transgress against the direct testimony of sacred history, when we confound the meridian blaze of "the fullness of time," with the faint glimmerings of divine light that were diffused over the infant world. No authority can justify such an incongruity; and Mr. Montgomery surely might have felt that the example of Milton in this case ought not to be followed: especially as the composition of a speech, supposed to have been delivered by a venerable patriarch, and made by the help of tacking together scraps of the Bible, is a practice too easy for a man of real genius.

If, however, Mr. M. has in our judgment been too liberal to the holy sages before the flood, by representing their religious system as more perfect than it really was, we think that he has not done sufficient justice to the inventors and improvers of the arts at that early age. Having related the death of Adam, who lived, according to the Mosaic account, 930 years, he may be considered as placing the events which his muse records about the middle or towards the end of the tenth cen-

* See M. R. Vol. lxiv. N. S. p. 144.

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tary from the creation. The unexampled vigour of the patriarchs, manifested by their great longevity, could not have been exerted through several centuries without effect; and we find even by the concise intimations of the Mosaic history, that they must have excelled in many useful arts. Gardening and tillage required implements, while the making of tents and the construction of cities demanded still more ingenuity of invention. The use of the harp and the pipe indicated a knowlege of music; and the working in brass and iron manifests an extent of science of which at first the reader is not aware. Since neither brass nor iron is found in the metallic state, mining and the metallurgic art must have been familiar to the antediluvians; and if they could work in brass and iron, they could not only construct trumpets to sound to battle, and swords and bucklers for the combat, but also instruments and vessels of all kinds. It is reasonable, therefore, to suppose that their improvements in the arts of civil life were much advanced, and that their knowlege of domestic comforts prevented the necessity of their reposing on mere beds of leaves. The construction of the Ark, as it is called, is a most striking evidence of the practical skill of the antediluvians. Reckoning the cubit at the medium length of 18 inches, this vessel was 450 feet long, 75 wide, and 45 deep, with a sloping deck *; and the formation of such a floating machine, with its adaptation to the various uses for which it was designed, bespeaks an extensive knowlege of naval architecture. The conjecture of Dr. Geddes that it was made of osiers, or was merely a piece of basket-work, seems not to be defensible; for it is beyond the utmost ingenuity of man to make out of such materials a box or vessel of so vast a size, having, moreover, three stories or decks. On the face of the narrative, as it has come down to us, (for we are not here discussing the accuracy or genuineness of the record,) we say that the inhabitants of the world, at the end of the first thousand years, were more advanced in science than Mr. Montgomery has uniformly represented them; and that his poem would have been improved, had he more availed himself of this fact in his picture of the first patriarchs.

Josephus (lib. i. cap. 2. of his Antiquities) speaks of the scientific knowlege at which the human race had arrived, in the tenth age from Adam, immediately preceding the flood; and he reports that, for the purpose of transmitting a testimony

* The Nelson first-rate ship of war, now building, measures from the fore-part of the figure-head to the aft-part of the taffrel 244 feet, or on the gun-deck 205: its extreme breadth, 53 feet 6 inches; and depth in hold, 24 feet.

of their inventions, especially in astronomy, they erected two pillars, one of brick, (πλίνθος,) the other of stone, (ἐκ λίθων,) on which were inscriptions recording their discoveries. Now if such were their advancement in science and the arts, their burying-places must have contained other memorials than mounds of earth planted with trees and flowers. It is true that, in the author's account of the antediluvian harp, on which Javan played with such exquisite skill, the rich engraving of the shell is noticed: but still his *general* picture of the antediluvian social state, as improved and embellished by the arts, does not correspond with this hint.

Another oversight Mr. M. seems to have committed in displaying the loves of Javan and Zillah, (the hero and heroine of the poem,) when, according to the history, Zillah was one of the wives of Lameth.

The author informs us that 'it was his design, in this composition, to present a similitude of events, that might be imagined to have happened in the first age of the world, in which such Scripture-characters as are introduced would probably have acted and spoken as they are here made to act and speak. The story is told as a parable only, and its value, in this view, must be determined by its moral, or rather by its religious influence on the mind and on the heart. Fiction though it be, it is the fiction that represents Truth,—Truth in the essence though not in the name; Truth in the spirit though not in the letter.'—Fiction it certainly is, and in some parts very well managed: but, for the reasons already assigned, it is not throughout so near the essence of truth as the poet imagines. We shall not, however, farther dispute this point with him, but proceed to afford the reader some idea of the outline and execution of this antediluvian romance. Disregarding learned hypotheses respecting the site of the Garden of Eden, Mr. M. supposes it to have been an inaccessible tract of land at the confluence of four rivers, which, after their junction, take the name of the largest, and become the Euphrates of the antient world. The land of Eden is considered to have been at the point where the Tygris and Euphrates meet.

'On the eastern side of these waters, the author supposes the descendants of the younger children of Adam to dwell, possessing the land of Eden: the rest of the world having been gradually colonized by emigrants from these, or peopled by the posterity of Cain. In process of time, after the sons of God had formed connections with the daughters of men, and there were giants in the earth, the latter assumed to be lords and rulers over mankind, till among themselves arose one, excelling all his brethren in knowledge and power, who became their king, and by their aid, in the course of a long life, subdued all the inhabited earth, except the land of Eden. This land, at

at the head of a mighty army, principally composed of the descendants of Cain, he has invaded and conquered, even to the banks of Euphrates, at the opening of the action of the poem.'

We are to conceive, then, that in the tenth century from the creation the descendants of Cain, under the guidance of a powerful and tyrannical ruler, had filled the whole earth with violence, excepting one happy spot called the Patriarch's Glen; in which dwelt a righteous few, uncontaminated by the abominations practised by "the host of Cain." The giant-chieftain resolves on the destruction of this happy race; and the poem opens with an account of the invasion of their sequestered dell:

'Woods in their front, Euphrates in their rear.'

Previously to the actual attack, the invaders encamp themselves; when Javan, the minstrel, once educated by Enoch but now in the camp of Cain, recollecting the beautiful Zillah, steals unperceived from the host to visit the scene of his nativity, and the residence of his Zillah. Having described his flight, the poet represents Javan's emotions when the land of Eden presented itself to his view:

'Twas noon, when Javan climb'd the bordering hill,
By many an old remembrance hallow'd still,
Whence he beheld, by sloping woods enclosed,
The hamlet, where his Parent's dust reposed,
His home of happiness in early years,
And still the home of all his hopes and fears,
When, from ambition struggling to break free,
He mused on joys and sorrows yet to *be*.
Awhile he stood, with rumination pale,
Casting an eye of sadness o'er the vale,
When, suddenly abrupt, spontaneous prayer
Burst from his lips for One who sojourn'd there;
For One, whose cottage, far appearing, drew,
Even from his Mother's grave, his transient view;
One, whose unconscious smiles were wont to dart
Ineffable emotion through his heart:
A nameless sympathy, more sweet, more dear
Than friendship, solaced him when she was near,
And well he guess'd, while yet a timorous boy,
That Javan's artless songs were Zillah's joy.'

If at this moment,

'While Javan, from the eastern hill survey'd
The circling forest and embosom'd glade,'

some conflicting passions agitated his breast,

'Love rose against the world, and Love prevailed.'—

He proceeds through the forest, and discovers his fair one, asleep in a bower formed on the spot on which he formerly had parted from her. The picture is well painted:

'*Now*, while he paused, the lapse of years forgot,
Remembrance eyed her lingering near the spot.
Onward he hasten'd; all his bosom burn'd,
As if that eve of parting were return'd;
And she, with silent tenderness of woe,
Clung to his heart, and would not let him go.
Sweet was the scene! apart the cedars stood,
A sunny islet open'd in the wood;
With vernal tints the wild-briar thicket glows,
For here *the desert flourish'd as the rose;*
From sapling trees, with lucid foliage crown'd,
Gay lights and shadows twinkled on the ground;
Up the tall stems luxuriant creepers run
To hang their silver blossoms in the sun;
Deep velvet verdure clad the turf beneath,
Where trodden flowers their richest odours breathe:
O'er all the bees, with murmuring music, flew
From bell to bell, to sip the treasured dew;
While insect myriads, in the solar gleams,
Glanced to and fro, like intermingling beams;
So fresh, so pure, the woods, the sky, the air,
It seem'd a place where Angels might repair,
And tune their harps beneath those tranquil shades,
To morning songs, or moonlight serenades.

'He paused again, with memory's dream entranced;
Again his foot unconsciously advanced,
For now the laurel-thicket caught his view,
Where he and Zillah wept their last adieu.
Some curious hand, since that bereaving hour,
Had twined the copse into a covert bower,
With many a light and fragrant shrub between,
Flowering aloft amidst perennial green.
As Javan search'd this blossom-woven shade,
He spied the semblance of a sleeping Maid;
'Tis she; 'tis Zillah, in her leafy shrine;
O'erwatch'd in slumber by a power divine,
In cool retirement from the heat of day,
Alone, unfearing, on the moss she lay,
Fair as the rainbow shines thro' darkening showers,
Pure as a wreath of snow on April flowers.'

The singular interview and separation of the lovers are wrought up with much effect. Javan reaches next the ruins of his mother's cottage, proceeds thence to Enoch's dwelling, and is well received by the prophet, who conducts him to the place of sacrifice, and to the Patriarch's Glen, of which a description is given:

'Deep

' Deep was that valley, girt with rock and wood;
In rural groupes the scatter'd hamlets stood;
Tents, arbours, cottages adorn'd the scene,
Gardens and fields, and shepherds' walks between;
Through all, a streamlet, from its mountain-source,
Seen but by stealth, pursued its willowy course.'

The fourth canto, which opens with this very tame couplet,

' Thus through the valley while they held their walk,
Enoch of former days began to talk,'

is narration, in which the circumstances of the death of Adam and Eve are, we believe, for the first time related. We give the conclusion:

" Our Mother first beheld him, sore amazed,
But terror grew to transport, while she gazed:
— ' 'Tis He, the Prince of Seraphim, who drove
Our banish'd feet from Eden's happy grove; *
Adam, my Life, my Spouse, awake!' she cried;
' Return to Paradise; behold thy Guide!
O let me follow in this dear embrace!'
She sunk, and on his bosom hid her face.
Adam look'd up; his visage changed its hue,
Transform'd into an Angel's at the view:
' I come!' he cried, with faith's full triumph fired,
And in a sigh of ecstacy expired.
The light was vanish'd, and the vision fled;
We stood alone, the living with the dead:
The ruddy embers, glimmering round the room,
Display'd the corse amidst the solemn gloom;
But o'er the scene a holy calm reposed,
The gate of heaven had open'd there, and closed.

" Eve's faithful arm still clasp'd her lifeless Spouse
Gently I shook it, from her trance to rouse;
She gave no answer; motionless and cold,
It fell like clay from my relaxing hold;
Alarm'd I lifted up the locks of grey,
That hid her cheek; her soul had pass'd away;
A beauteous corse she graced her partner's side
Love bound their lives, and Death could not divide."

We pass over the Burying-place of the Patriarchs, and the sacrifice on the Anniversary of the Fall of Adam, to afford a little space for a portion of the prophecy which is put into the mouth of Enoch:

" Amidst the visions of ascending years,
What mighty chief, what conqueror appears;

' * Paradise Lost, Book xi. v. 238.'

His garments roll'd in blood, his eyes of flame,
And on his thigh the unutterable name?
—'Tis I, that bring deliverance: strong to save,
I pluck'd the prey from Death, and spoil'd the Grave.'
—Wherefore, O Warrior! are thy garments red,
Like those, whose feet amidst the vintage tread?
—I trode the Wine-press of the field alone;
I look'd around for succour; there was none;
Therefore my wrath sustain'd me while I fought,
And mine own arm my Saints' salvation wrought.
—Thus may thine arm for evermore prevail;
Thus may thy foes, O Lord! for ever fail;
Captive by thee Captivity be led;
Seed of the Woman! bruise the Serpent's head;
Redeemer! promised since the world began,
Bow the high heavens, and condescend to man."

At the bottom of the page, references are made to Isaiah liii. 1—6. and Rev. xix. 12.: but, if these were the words of Isaiah and St. John, they ought not to be assigned to Enoch; and, without adverting to the bad taste of putting texts of Scripture into rhyme, we object to a mode by which the Patriarchal, Jewish, and Christian dispensations are confounded. From this very *flat* style of *poetizing*, Mr. M. passes, in the next canto, to something more spirited and indicative of genius. Here Javan has a second interview with his Zillah, sings to his harp, and exemplifies the power of music.

The scene now changes to the affecting and the tragical; and we behold the army of the invaders carrying away captive the patriarchs and their families. Having thus introduced the host of Cain, the author sings the origin of the giants, together with the birth and early adventures of their king, who figures on the poetic canvas as an infant Hercules. The miseries produced by his exploits excite a philippic against conquerors:

'Thus while the Tyrant cast his haughty eye
O'er the broad landscape and incumbent sky,
His heart exulting whisper'd, — "All is mine,"
And heard a voice from all things answer "Thine."
Such was the matchless Chief, whose name of yore
Fill'd the wide world; —his name is known no more:
O that for ever from the rolls of fame,
Like his, had perish'd every Conqueror's name!
Then had mankind been spared, in after times,
Their greatest sufferings and their greatest crimes.
The Hero scourges not his age alone,
His curse to late posterity is known;
He slays his thousands with his living breath,
His tens of thousands by his fame in death.

Achilles

Achilles quench'd not all his wrath on Greece
'Thro' Homer's song its miseries never cease;
Like Phœbus' shafts, the bright contagion brings
Plagues on the people for the feuds of kings.
'Twas not in vain the son of Philip sigh'd
For worlds to conquer, — o'er the western tide,
His Spirit, in the Spaniards' form, o'erthrew
Realms, that the Macedonian never knew.
The steel of Brutus struck not Cæsar dead;
Cæsar in other lands hath rear'd his head,
And fought, of friends and foes, on many a plain,
His millions, captured, fugitive, and slain;
Yet seldom suffer'd, where his country died,
A Roman vengeance for his parricide.'

When the captive patriarchs are brought before the giant-king, he resolves on sacrificing them to his idol-gods. Javan is sentenced to instant death; which produces an interesting scene between him and Zillah. A sorcerer of a singular figure then appears, who, having proposed the deification of the King, seconds the monarch's sanguinary purpose. This sorcerer is a fit subject for Mr. Fuseli's pencil:

" Away with folly!" in tremendous tone,
Exclaim'd a voice, more horrid than the groan
Of famish'd tiger leaping on his prey;
— Crouch'd at the Monarch's feet the speaker lay;
But starting up, in his ferocious mien
That Monarch's ancient foster-sire was seen,
The Goatherd, — he who snatch'd him from the flood,
The Sorcerer, who nursed him up to blood;
Who, still his evil Genius, felly bent
On one bold purpose, went where'er he went;
That purpose, long in his own bosom seal'd,
Ripe for fulfilment now, he thus reveal'd.
Full in the midst he rush'd; alarm'd, aghast,
Giants and captives trembled as he pass'd,
For scarcely seem'd he of the sons of earth;
Unchronicled the hour that gave him birth;
Though shrunk his cheek, his temples deeply plough'd,
Keen was his vulture-eye, his strength unbow'd;
Swarthy his features; venerably grey,
His beard dishevell'd o'er his bosom lay;
Bald was his front; but, white as snow behind,
His ample locks were scatter'd to the wind;
Naked he stood, save round his loins a zone
Of shagged fur, and o'er his shoulders thrown
A serpent's skin, that cross'd his breast, and round
His body thrice in glittering volumes wound.'

Enoch then rises, emboldened by the spirit of true prophecy, pronounces the doom both of the wizard and the royal sub-

ject of his adulation, and predicts the desolating effects of the deluge. Inflamed with rage at the speech of the patriarch, the giant-chieftain rushes on him with his sword: but, missing his aim, he falls; soon, however, he springs on his feet, and

> ——————— 'searched around,
> But *Enoch walked with God and was not found.*'

It was unnecessary in this place to introduce the mention of the patriarch's *walking with God;* and the text seems to be inserted merely for the sake of making out the couplet. We are persuaded that the effect would have been increased, had the ascension of Enoch been narrated as an illustration of the text, without this formal quotation.

As Enoch ascends, Javan catches his mantle; which, like that of Elijah being indued with a miraculous power, he smote the giant-host, as Elisha smote the waters of Jordan, and opened a passage through which the patriarchs marched in safety:

> 'He spake, and bursting thro' the giant-throng,
> Smote with the mantle as he moved along;
> A power invisible their rage controul'd,
> Hither and thither as he turn'd they roll'd;
> Unawed, unarm'd the ransom'd prisoners pass'd
> Thro' ranks of foes astonied and aghast:
> Close in the youth's conducting steps they trod:
> — So Israel march'd when Moses raised his rod,
> And led their host, enfranchised, thro' the wave,
> The people's safeguard, the pursuer's grave.
>
> 'Thus from the wolves this little flock was torn,
> And sheltering in the mountain-caves till morn,
> They join to sing, in strains of full delight,
> Songs of deliverance thro' the dreary night.'

After this event, the giants are assailed by the wrath of heaven,

> 'The embattled Cherubim appear on high,
> And coursers, winged with lightning, sweep the sky;'

the giants are dispersed, their king is destroyed, and the ransomed patriarchs quietly return to their glen.

Such is this supposed picture of *The World before the Flood:* but it is not that kind of picture which we were induced to expect from the poet's account of it, viz. that it was 'truth in essence though not in name.' It is a fable, to the formation of which almost every part of Scripture has been made to contribute: but, instead of taking this liberty, the writer should have confined himself to the intimations given in the book of Genesis, and have constructed a story which would have afforded a probable delineation of the arts, manners, and pursuits of the

descendants of Adam, a few centuries previous to the flood. In this respect, the poet disappoints us, and he seems to have effected much less than he might have accomplished. He will say, perhaps, that he has obscurely alluded to the attainments of the antediluvians: but we think that these ought to have been more prominently displayed.

A farther objection may be alleged against the outline and termination of this fable. If the descendants of Cain had been subdued by the 'embattled cherubim' and 'coursers winged with lightning from the sky,' no necessity would have existed for the subsequent visitation of the deluge. It appears, however, from Scripture, that this idolatrous race continued unreclaimed by divine judgments till the flood of waters swept them away: but Noah could not have been in a state of slavery to them, because they would then have obstructed his building of the ark.

Dismissing the plan and conduct of the story, we must, in the last place, advert to the very unequal execution of this performance. Though the author's muse is often spirited and energetic, she frequently paces along with much tameness; and the couplets which she then produces are more adapted for a hymn-book than an epic poem: (*e. g.*)

'With none his name and power will He divide,
For He is GOD and there is none beside.' — P. 182.

'He plunged into the woods; — the Prophet then
Turn'd and took up his parable again.' — P. 183.

"O God of truth! rebuke the Tyrant's rage,
And save the remnant of thine heritage." — P. 140.

'Already seem'd the immortal Spirit free,
And Death was swallowed up in victory.' — P. 122.

'All day she strove to hide her misery,
In vain; — a mother's eye is quick to see.' — P. 106.

'His smitten conscience felt as fierce a pain,
As if he fell from innocence again.' — P. 64.

Lines of this manufacture serve no other purpose than that of destroying the illusion of poetry, and spoiling the general effect.

The occasional poems, which occupy the remainder of the volume, are on trivial subjects, except the author's verses written during his confinement in York-castle, which he calls *Prison Amusements;* these, indeed, are a proof that imprisonment did not destroy his vivacity, and cannot be called 'bitter fruits of a mind in adversity, *ill calculated* to render it patient and gentle under the trials of maturer life.' No doubt, Mr. M. has profited by these lessons.

ART.

ART. V. *Le Sage's Historical, Genealogical, Chronological, and Geographical Atlas*, exhibiting all the Royal Families in Europe, their Origin, Descent, Marriages, &c.; together with their various Possessions, foreign Wars, civil Commotions, famous Battles, religious Troubles, Minorities, Titles and Orders, Courts of Law, and remarkable Events of each Kingdom; translated from the last and much improved French Edition. To which have been added, Six Maps, composed by Madame Coindé, and never before published, making it *A Complete Universal Atlas*. Imperial Folio. Six Guineas, half-bound. Printed by R. Juigné, Margaret Street, Cavendish Square, and sold by Dulau and Co., &c. 1813.

WORKS of this description are the result of much labour and ingenious arrangement; and, though necessarily expensive, they remunerate the purchaser by their high utility, provided that sufficient care has been taken in the execution of them. Maps constructed on the judicious plan of uniting geography with history must tend to facilitate the knowlege of both, must give to the study of them the semblance of amusement, and, by associating facts with places and dates, must afford a degree of accuracy in recollection which is rarely to be obtained so easily by other means. Since M. le Sage published his *Geography of History*, on a large sheet, (see M. R. Vol. xxvi. N. S. p. 218.) he has greatly enlarged his plan. The maps with vertical and horizontal columns, differently coloured to mark their appropriation to different families and nations, are formed after the manner of Dr. Priestley's Historical Chart: but those which are geographical are executed in a peculiar style, including, with the usual delineation of the land and water of this terraqueous globe, a great variety of useful notices in the blank spaces; so that, while the eye takes cognizance of the outlines of states and kingdoms, it is furnished also with important information relative to them. The Atlas, being intended to exhibit the whole system of antient and modern history, contains maps of three kinds, viz. *general*, *geographical*, and *genealogical*. In the first of these, by the very simple means of vertical and horizontal columns, we may view at once the uninterrupted history of any nation and its contemporary relation with others. — In those of the second kind, history, as we have observed, is combined with geography; and, either in the marginal columns or by lines drawn and coloured in the body of the map, striking incidents are referred to the spot to which they belong, and routes of armies are accurately traced. Thus, on the maps relative to antient history are found, denoted by a coloured line, the retreat of the ten thousand Greeks, the march of Darius, the expedition of Alexander, the campaigns of Hannibal,

nibal, &c.: on those of modern history, the campaigns of Gustavus Adolphus, the Archduke Charles, &c. &c., but not those of Bonaparte, though they are more various and astonishing than any which either antient or modern history presents. The map of the invasion of the Barbarians is mentioned as deserving of particular attention, for the light which it throws on a very confused epoch of history. — In those of the last kind, or in the *geneulogical maps*, the desired knowlege is obtained by the symmetrical situation of the personages, as chronology is indicated by the order and relative distance of the objects.

To these remarks, which refer to the Atlas of M. le Sage, we must add a word or two on this new edition by Madame Coindé; who, it seems, planned the six new maps with which it is augmented, under the inspection of M. le Sage, while he was in this country. The first of them is intended to facilitate the Knowlege of Mythology; the second contains a genealogical Table of the Sovereigns of England, from the Departure of the Romans to William the Conqueror; the third, of the Sovereigns of France from the Foundation of the Monarchy to Hugh Capet; the fourth, of the Sovereigns of Spain from Pelagius, the first Christian King, to Sancho the Great; the fifth, of the Emperors of Turkey and of China; and the sixth is a Map of the World on a plan entirely new, of which we shall take some farther notice before this article is concluded. Of the 38 maps which form this Atlas, we shall particularize three or four, for the purpose of illustrating the manner in which the work is executed, and of shewing with what method and compression the result of much reading is placed before the student on a single sheet of paper.

We begin with the 'General Picture of Universal Antient History, from the Creation to the Birth of Christ,' including a space of 4004 years. The object of the compiler of this map is to bring the study of History under the same form and method as that of Geography: for this purpose, different compartments are assigned to different epochs; and, following the usual divisions of history into antient and modern, and into sacred and profane, in distinct yet parallel columns, events are regularly and chronologically arranged. The first column of this map, appropriated to *Sacred History*, commences with an enumeration of its materials, viz. the books of the Old and New Testament. To those which are apochryphal, or, as it is here expressed, 'which are admitted as canonical in the Roman but not in the Protestant church,' an asterisk (*) is in general subjoined: but, as the compiler is a Catholic, he is better acquainted with his own than with the Protestant system, and has omitted to mark the two books of Esdras as apochryphal.

The

The O. T. is said to contain 45 books, and the N. T. 27 books, 'according to the decision of the Council of Trent.' Mention is also made of the Septuagint, (here denominated the version of the Septant,) and of Jerom's Latin version, commonly called the Vulgate; and notices are subjoined respecting the four famous Polyglots, the first by Cardinal *Ximenes*, in 1515; the second by *Plantin*, at Anvers, or Antwerp, in 1572; the third by *Jay*, at Paris, in 1645; the fourth by *Walton*, at London, in 1657. The column which has for its head-title *Sacred History* continues to the bottom of the page, and includes the period of 4004 years; viz. from the creation, to the birth of Christ: but it ought to have been intitled *Ancient* Sacred History, since no part of the New Testament-history is detailed. The columns appropriated to *Profane History* are headed by a compartment in which are concisely exhibited its division into three great epochs, viz. the *uncertain*, *heroical*, or *fabulous*, and the *historical times*; with the different systems of chronology, and the Greek, Roman, and modern authors who ought to be read for information. This enumeration of authors is very short and imperfect; and some of the names are so *Frenchified* that they will scarcely be recognized by the English reader: throughout the work, indeed, proper names are often exhibited after the French rather than after the English manner. The different sources of antient chronology, with their variations, are thus concisely stated. The *Hebrew text* reckons 4004 years, or 40 centuries; the *Samaritan*, 4305 or 43 centuries; the *Septuagint version*, 5270 years, or 52 centuries *. Accounts of the four great monarchies of antiquity, viz. the Assyrian, Persian, Grecian, and Roman, present themselves in four parallel and contiguous columns.

The next map is a General Picture of Universal Modern History, in which the Roman empire occupies, as it ought, the first place; since it comprehended, in the age of the Antonines, all the civilized world: its boundaries extending to the Rhine and the Danube on the north, to the Tigris and Euphrates on the east, to the deserts of Africa on the south, and to the Great Ocean on the west,—including, according to Gibbon, a population of 120,000,000. Of this empire, it is briefly stated, as a general notice, that 'it lasted about five centuries, and obeyed during the first three only one emperor; that in the fourth it was divided, (the partition, into Eastern and Western, took place in the year 364,) and fell in the fifth under the *redoubled* (re-

* M. le Sage should have informed his readers that the Vatican and Alexandrine copies of the Septuagint do not accord in their chronological readings.

peated)

peated) irruptions of the barbarians of the north.' A particular reference is made to map viii., in which the Roman empire in its greatest extent is geographically delineated, with ample specifications in the margin.

Before, however, we quit this map, we shall extract the *character* of the several centuries, as marked in the first column.

'Century I. Under Tiberius, Caligula, Nero, and Domitian, *of an atrocious tyranny;* II. Under Trajan, Adrian, Antoninus, and Marcus Aurelius, *of unexampled felicity* *; III. *Of a military anarchy*, in which the Emperors were on one day raised to the purple, and on the next massacred by the soldiers; IV. *Partition of the Roman Empire;* V. *Dissolution of the Western Empire by the Barbarians;* VI. *Political chaos.* The Barbarians having overturned every thing, moved in every direction before they settled themselves; VII. *Glory and lustre of the Saracens*, who conquered all the east, and penetrated as far as France on the west; VIII. *Of Charlemagne;* one of the greatest geniuses that ever appeared; IX. *Dismemberment of the second Western Empire*, which led to the formation of the modern states; X. Called *the Iron-Age;* ignorance, superstition, and barbarism covered all Europe; XI. *Feudality established every where.* Chivalry rose and flourished; it animated justice and the expiring virtues; XII. *Crusades.* They impoverished and depopulated Europe; but prepared for it a more regular and tranquil form; XIII. *The Crusades continued.* They produced a diminution of the power of the great vassals, and the elevation of the sovereigns; XIV. *For ever memorable inventions;* Mariner's Compass, Gunpowder, and Printing; XV. *Famous voyages and discoveries.* Diaz, Columbus, and Gama discovered the Cape of Good Hope, America, and the Indies; XVI. *Religious troubles in every quarter;* Luther, Calvin, Anabaptists, Huguenots, Protestants, Puritans †; XVII. Called *the Age of Louis XIV.;* it influenced all Europe; the fine arts flourished, and it abounded in great men; XVIII. The end of which presented political convulsions which agitated all Europe.'

We have transcribed this enumeration of the discriminating characters of the eighteen preceding centuries, on account of its extreme neatness and compression. Drawn out in a

* Gibbon remarks, in the third chapter of his History of the Decline and Fall, that "if a man were called to fix the period in the history of the world during which the condition of the human race was most happy and prosperous, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Domitian to the accession of Commodus." *Rev.*

† Thus M. le Sage, being we suppose a zealous Catholic, designated the glorious æra of the Reformation; an event to which the human race is indebted for all the religious and civil liberty which now exists in the world.

tabular

tabular form, it would be well adapted for consultation on various occasions.

That Madame Coindé may not accuse us of want of gallantry, we shall now turn to her 'Genealogical Map of the different Families celebrated in Mythology, with a Sketch of their History.' This map shews considerable ingenuity and contrivance, and may be useful to those who are studying the fabulous ages of profane antiquity. Here are arranged, in different compartments, the *Pelopidæ*; the *Heraclidæ*; the *Tyndaridæ*; the fabulous kings of Athens; the Labdacides; and the fabulous kings of Troy. At the bottom of the map, is a short account of the Trojan war.

The ninth map will be found of eminent utility to those who study the history of the middle ages, since it contains 'A methodical Table of the Barbarians who have invaded the Roman Empire, shewing at one glance their Origin, Chiefs, Destination, and End.' M. le Sage very justly observes that 'the invasion of the barbarians who overturned the Roman empire presents one of the most important points of our historical studies, and is at the same time the most obscure and perhaps the most difficult to recollect.' The course which the several barbarians pursued is marked on the map in different colours; and, to assist the memory, the following arrangement of them is made at the bottom of the sheet, in distinct columns: '1. The *Huns*, from the north of China; 2. The *Goths*, from the south of Sweden; 3. The *Visigoths*, from ditto; 4. The *Ostrogoths*, from ditto; 5. The *Lombards* from the borders of the Baltic; 6. The *Alans*, from the borders of the Caspian sea; 7. The *Burgundians*, from the borders of the Baltic; 8. The *Vandals*, from ditto; 9. The *Suevi*, from ditto; 10. The *Franks*, from the banks of the Rhine and the Weser; 11. The *Anglo Saxons*, from the borders of the Elbe; 12. The *Saracens*, from Arabia; 13. The *Allemani*, from the borders of the Lech and the Rhine.' We have given only the head-title of each column, omitting the subsequent details.

Leaving now the history of antient times, and that of the middle ages, we turn to the New World, or to the map intitled 'Geographical and Political Divisions of America, Productions, Discoveries, Establishments, &c. &c. &c.' Here, if the map be not very accurately delineated, much compressed matter relative to it will be found in the margin. We shall content ourselves with copying the account of the United States:

'Thirteen of the English colonies of North America, quarrelling with the mother-country on account of some new taxes, solemnly united in Congress the 4th of July 1776. Then began between England

England and her colonies, supported at different epochas by France, Spain, and Holland, a war, of which every one knows the particulars. It lasted six or seven years, and finished in 1782 by the independence of these colonies, and their admission into the political world as a free and sovereign state.

'This new power is composed of 13 primitive states, and four others incorporated afterward; an augmentation which must yet increase by the tilling of the uncultivated land. Each of the states has its peculiar constitution; but the general constitution, which unites and governs them in a mass, consists of a president elected for four years, a senate renewed every six years, and a house of representatives, which is elected every two years.

'THE SEVENTEEN STATES WHICH COMPOSE THE AMERICAN UNION.

	NAMES.	CAPITALS.	*Square Miles.*	*Population in* 1790.
1.	*Vermont	Windsor	3,411	85,589
2.	New Hampshire	Portsmouth	3,162	141,885
3.	Massachuset	Boston	2,082	378,787
	District of Maine	Portland	27,000	96,540
4.	Rhode Island	Newport	429	68,325
5.	Connecticut	New London	1,533	237,946
6.	New York	New York	8,001	32,328
7.	New Jersey	Burlington	3,336	184,139
8.	Pennsylvania	Philadelphia	5,001	434,373
9.	Delaware	Newcastle	666	67,881
10.	Maryland	Annapolis	4,002	397,728
11.	Virginia	Richmond	26,667	747,610
12.	*Kentucky	Lexington	16,665	73,677
13.	North Carolina	New Bern	14,331	393,750
14.	South Carolina	Charlestown	6,666	249,973
15.	Georgia	Savannah	57,000	82,548
16.	*Tenessy	Knoxville	16,800	35,691

17. *Ohio, a country which has been lately admitted into the confederation (1803).

'N. B. The four states marked (*) have been successively admitted into the confederation as sovereign states, in 1791, 1792, 1796, and 1803. The United States have under their dominion an immense territory, which will be admitted, in all or in part, into the confederation, as they will be able to present a mass or population of 60,000 inhabitants. These territories are,

18. The countries north-west of the Ohio, which are not less than 136,998 square miles.
19. The territory of the Mississipi, comprised between this river and Georgia.
20. Louisiana, which has been ceded to the United States by France.

'The population and extent have been treated of according to the geography of Guthrie and M. Montelle; but we shall observe particularly for the population, that nothing could lead us more into error than to calculate that of the present day after that which we indicate for 1790; the nature of the government, that of the country, and the political

political events of Europe, have contributed to increase it in a prodigious manner, and in a proportion which it would be impossible to assign.'

Some apology was certainly necessary for specifying the population of the United States so far back as 1790: but we are not satisfied with it in a work of such expence. Pains should have been taken to obtain the latest returns as given in American works of authority. The Missouri country will prove hereafter a vast accession to the United States.

Turning over several maps, which ought not to be turned over in silence, our attention must be arrested, for a few minutes, by that which displays the 'Geographical Elements of the Russian Empire, viz. Boundaries, Extent, Mountains, Rivers, Lakes, Canals, Inhabitants, Mines, Productions, Commerce, Communications, &c.' It is impossible to throw our eyes across a map which exhibits this vast extent of empire, without serious apprehensions for the rest of Europe. It already contains 2,100,000 square miles, or the ninth part of the known land, and the twenty-eighth part of the whole globe, and it still increases every day. 'The rest of the earth,' continues M. le Sage, 'ought to shudder at the idea of the formidable pressure with which it is menaced by the pole. A few more reigns similar to those of Peter and Catherine, and the Russian empire will have no boundaries.' What must he think of the modern system of politics, by which Russia is courted, and aided to augment her power and consequence!

The last sheet in this Atlas is a Geographical, Historical, and Physical Map of the World, constructed on a new plan, and containing a great variety of information rarely to be found in so narrow a compass. If all the particulars could be minutely trusted, it would be invaluable: but we think that it must be revised before it can be deemed perfect. In the middle of the outline of each quarter of the globe, are inserted on a tablet its dimensions in square miles, and its population. The latter is thus stated:

Europe, - -	170,000,000 of inhabitants.
Asia, - -	380,000,000
Africa, - -	90,000,000
America, North, -	30,000,000
———, South, -	20,000,000
The fifth quarter, or the Oceanic Lands,	20,000,000

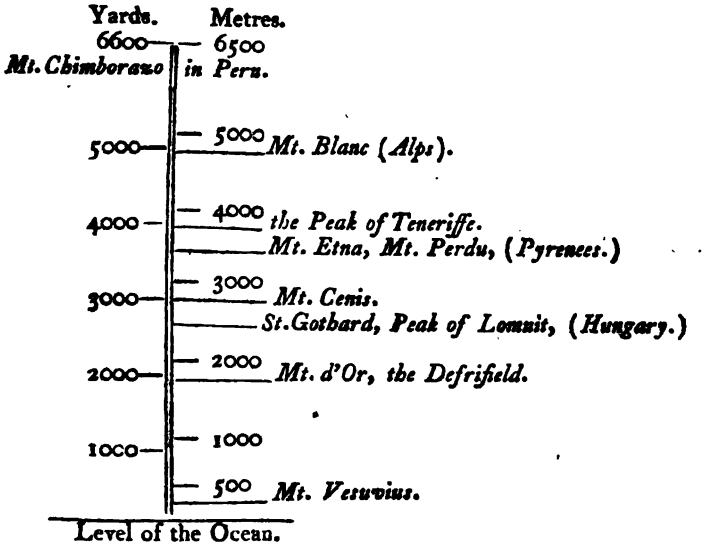
Total population of the globe, 710,000,000

Here, however, we must remark that these numbers are probably far from correct. Even the large population assigned to Asia

Asia cannot be its extent if Lord Macartney's statement of that of China be admitted; since the population of China and that of our own eastern empire exceed M. le Sage's calculation.

In the triangle made by the two hemispheres touching in a point and resting on a plane, are inserted the following curious particulars. Respecting the dimensions of the earth, it is stated that 'its circumference is 27,000 miles; that its surface contains 78,000,000 square miles, and its solidity 36,900,000,000 cubic miles. Of the 78,000,000 miles of surface, a little more than one-fourth (or 21 millions) is in land, and the rest in water. — Of the 21 millions of square miles in land, the eastern hemisphere, or antient world, takes up two-thirds.'

The following very simple mode is adopted for exhibiting the actual and comparative elevations of the highest mountains of the globe, in metres and yards:



A note is added, in which the reader is informed concerning *the metre*, that 'Messrs. Mechain and Delambre finished in 1798 their measure of the arc of the meridian, comprised between Dunkirk and Barcelona, and their results have determined the length of the METRE, the unity of the new metreology; it is the ten thousandth part of a quarter of the terrestrial meridian, and answers to a little more than three feet.' This may be very true: but we are not told whether the French or the English foot be meant; we conclude the former, which exceeds ours by an inch; and then the above numbers will not accord with the mensurations of our philosophers. Besides, a great error is committed in representing Vesuvius as not 500

yards high; which the French geographers (near the truth, perhaps,) describe as having an elevation of 3,600 feet of their measure.

We shall conclude with observing that, highly useful as this Atlas may be found, it is open to great improvements. Being a compilation, references to authorities should always be inserted, which would lead to the correction of mistakes. It would also be improved by a copious index, directing to the number of the map and the column in it; and each map ought to be numbered on the outside, to save time in consultation. It is an *Universal Atlas* of a peculiar kind, and a very desirable companion to the common Atlas.

ART. VI. *A Report upon the Herculaneum Manuscripts*, in a Second Letter; addressed by Permission to His Royal Highness the Prince Regent, by the Rev. John Hayter, A.M., Chaplain in Ordinary to the Prince, and his Superintendant of those Manuscripts. 4to. 1l. 8s. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

THE purport of this letter is to communicate to the Prince Regent, and to the public at large, 'a faithful and detailed account of every circumstance, transaction, and occurrence, which in any manner are connected with the nature, the commencement, the prosecution, and the result of the undertaking, of which the successful, at least very promising course was interrupted, most unfortunately, in the year 1806, by the French invasion of the Neapolitan territory.'

We devoted so much space to the consideration of this subject in our Review of the "Herculanensia," that it is not our intention to return to it at present, beyond the mere statement of a few facts and opinions. Mr. Hayter, if we judge from this volume, has made out a clear case of 'weakness, ignorance, jealousy, and treachery,' against many of his Neapolitan coadjutors in the business: but, unfortunately, whether his account be deemed satisfactory or not, the simple truth is that *merely the fac-simile copies* of ninety-four unravelled Papyri are the sole fruit of his mission; excepting, indeed, some carbonic masses which are not likely to yield any literary treasures. The original manuscripts, both unfolded and folded, to the amount of nearly eighteen hundred, are in the possession of the French. — The fac-similes above mentioned are deposited at Oxford; that University which, either by its general merits or by its greater public spirit in the cause of literature, seems to deprive its rival of the collections even of her own children. Mr. Hayter and Dr. Clark are both sons of Cambridge; and yet the Herculanean fac-similes and the very valuable manuscripts, procured by the zeal and industry of the last-mentioned traveller, are consigned

signed to the care of another University. In the first instance, indeed, the loss of Cambridge was not optional: but on her own head rests the rejection of Dr. Clark's MSS.; and we give the circumstance publicity, in order to throw one obstacle at least in the way of so ill-judged an economy, and to prevent it from again interfering with the interests and the honour of a learned body.

Besides an account of the discovery, and of the method of unfolding the manuscripts, this volume contains some drawings of the Papyrus in various states. It affords, indeed, if we take the two letters to the Prince * into consideration, a very ample account of the whole subject. Adjoined is the exordium of a Latin poem composed by the author, intitled *Herculaneum*; which presents several very high-flown compliments to the Prince of Wales; and two false quantities:

'*O Regni et Brītonum spes altera,*'

and

'*Graiosque Phlēgræâ in sede colonos.*'

We do not know on what classical authority Mr. Hayter uses such an elision as *tu ōbvius hosti*; — or a dative case after the verb *terreo, — convulso terreat orbi.* He informs us, p. 75., that, 'The dialect of the fragments of the eight books of Epicurus,' which are among the Oxford fac-similes, 'is attic; that of Polystratus, and Colotes, is so to a certain degree only. The dialect of the Treatise upon Anger, *I think, is somewhat attic;* the language of that treatise, in general, is superior to all the rest. If *one* except the Latin poem, the subjects of all the MSS. at Oxford are biographical, or physical, or philological, or moral, or theological. In different places of different works, there are short poetical quotations from lost poets. One quotation from the Odyssey is incalculably precious, because we find, in this quotation, the same language, expression for expression, as in the present editions.' Several other points of information respecting the MSS. might be selected from these letters, which would perhaps be interesting to our readers: but we must here conclude; testifying that feeling of regret which always accompanies our reflections on the fancied treasures of Herculaneum. Why does not the University of Oxford, by the publication of some one of the fac-similes, (of the Latin poem for instance,) endeavour to gratify that curiosity which has been excited only to be disappointed by the Treatise of Philodemus on Music, and the Fragment concerning the Gods? Hitherto, we can only repeat on this occasion the common confession, '*Carbonem pro thesauro invenimus.*'

* The first letter is here republished, with some corrections.

ART. VII. *A Treatise on the Offence of Libel*, with a Disquisition on the Right, Benefits, and proper Boundaries of Political Discussion. By John George, of the Middle Temple, Special Pleader. 8vo. pp. 357. 18s. Boards. Taylor and Hessey.

ART. VIII. *The Law of Libel:* in which is contained, A General History of this Law in the ancient Codes, and of its Introduction, and successive Alterations, in the Law of England. Comprehending a Digest of all the leading Cases upon Libels, from the earliest to the present Time. By Francis Ludlow Holt, Esq., of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 309. 12s. Boards. Reed.

To a free community, the right of free discussion is essential; and any book, therefore, which professes to treat of the nature, utility, and proper limits of that discussion, and of the offences which are liable to be committed in the exercise of it, presents the strongest claims to attention from the public. More particularly is it intitled to the regard of those who instruct their fellow-subjects through the channel of the press, who take an interest in the advancement of knowlege, or who duly appreciate the value of our liberties, and the importance of guarding and preserving them. The accomplishment of such a service cannot be too highly estimated; especially when the person who undertakes it unites legal information to competent general knowlege, and, while he instructs the practising lawyer, is able to enlighten even the legislator. Being of opinion that, in reviewing works of great merit, we best consult the interest of our readers by allowing the authors, as far as it can be done, to speak for themselves, we are certain that such a rule ought to be observed when the subject itself has seldom been discussed; or never so fully, or by a person so adequate to the undertaking, as is the fact in the instance now before us.

Though the author of the *Treatise on the Offence of Libel* styles himself a *Special Pleader*, it must not be inferred that his range is so confined and that his views are so limited as such a designation might imply. Indeed, it will be found that the very reverse is the case; and that rarely has a lawyer, be his degree what it might, allowed himself a scope of the same extent with that which has been taken by Mr. George: who does not merely bring together authorities, whence the law may be collected, but lays down and examines its principles, exposes its errors and defects, and, while he states what it is, tells us what it ought to be.

Mr. G. professes that the object of this volume (as far as it is a treatise of law, he must mean,) is to shew the foundation in law of the offence of libel, and the grounds on which the law considers it to be an offence; or, in other words, wherein consists, or what is necessary to be done to constitute, this offence; as it is in effect the purport of the rest of the work

work to evince what the law ought to be on this subject,—that is, when it ought to interfere, and when it ought to be quiescent.

On the present occasion, this assuming profession does not in the person of Mr. George exhibit any of her accustomed pomp. No time is wasted in preliminaries; no impertinent parley or idle gossiping delays us; no dedication trumpets the matchless talents and surprising attainments of a Chancellor or a Chief Justice; no preface intimates the rare qualifications, the exemplary diligence, and the laudable motives of the author; not even a bill of fare of the entertainment is put into our hands: but we are at once ushered in to the court, and instantly proceed to business. Mr. George's volume certainly invites the attention of the lawyer and of the intelligent reader in an equal degree: but let not the former suppose that the law is laid down incorrectly, because it is not deemed infallible; nor the latter conclude that the subject is not liberally treated, because it is a law-treatise which offers itself to him. Here the professional man and the legislator are at once benefited; the information is correct and the counsels are able. Throughout, Mr. G. seems to have in view *written* or rather *printed* libel. The offence of libel in any extent; being of comparatively modern origin, the authorities vary greatly with regard to the grounds of it and to the defence with which it is to be met. It appears that, by very many authorities, libel is deemed to be a public offence as tending to a breach of the peace: but Mr. George objects to this definition, because, he says, many cases are held to be libels in which no such tendency exists, and there are others in which its existence is indisputable, yet they cannot be considered to be libels. 'Some years ago, an obscene book was prosecuted as, and adjudged a libel; and an obscene book having no immediate tendency to a breach of the peace so understood, it was said "the King's peace includes good order and government, and *that* peace may be broken in many instances without an actual force, as if it be an act, first, against the constitution or civil government; secondly, if it be against religion; and, thirdly, if against morality." Hence it appears, that the alleged tendency of libels to a breach of the peace, using the phrase in its common acceptation, does not serve to indicate the foundation of the public offence in all cases of libel.'—On perusing the reflections in the following quotation, may we be allowed to observe that the wisdom of Mr. George in this instance appears superior to that of the law?

'As the public injury to be effected by the publishing of an obscene book, was of a different species from the injuries effected by, or supposed to spring from, the publishing of other descriptions of

libels, and as the authors, (whoever they were,) of the maxim that libel is punishable as tending to a breach of the peace, did not appear to have had in view the operation of an obscene book, or to have contemplated such a book as a libel, it was not necessary to attempt to bring the case within the maxim. The prosecutors of the obscene book were at liberty to look round them for other pernicious consequences of the publishing of such a book, besides the tendency to a breach of the peace; and it would have carried to the full as strong a conviction that the book was properly punishable, if it had been held to be punishable as being destructive of morality, as it could do by endeavouring to make it appear that what is against morality is a breach of the peace, and that the book shall be punishable for this last accident. In my mind, to have rested the public offence, in the particular case, on this ground, would have been more satisfactory; inasmuch as it is hard to conceive, that what is against morality can be perfectly innocent; while, if we look only to *the fact* of tendency or no tendency to a breach of the peace, it may safely be advanced, that many actions which plainly have a direct tendency to a breach of the peace, may nevertheless be not only innocent, but necessary and laudable: as for example, the attempt to apprehend a felon.'

Referring to the authorities under this head of the law, the author asserts that

'No correct, no logical definition of a libel has ever been given. There are, however, to be found in various books, passages, of which, though they all fail to present us with a logical definition of a libel, some nevertheless serve very well to give us such a general conception of what is meant by a libel, as is sufficient for many occasions, and such as, perhaps, would have sufficed for all occasions, provided other doctrines which have been advanced, concerning the same subject-matter, were not in some degree at variance with them, and provided the unqualified assertion that libels have a tendency to a breach of the peace, and the maxim that they shall be punishable on that account, had not been superadded.'

It is here allowed that the doctrine, that *on an indictment the truth is no justification*, stands on high authority, but Mr. George denies that in its universality this doctrine is law. He states particular cases in which the truth is not and ought not to be a justification: but he contends that in other cases it has been and ought to have been ruled to be a justification. Yet still he acknowleges that he never met with any description of case, in which a defendant was expressly held to be no libeller because his writing was true. It would seem, from the ensuing passage, that he does not admit that the well known adage, *the greater the truth the greater the libel*, is law. 'The above doctrine, that it is not material whether the writing be true, seems to have served as a hint to some men of a dogmatical cast of mind, and perhaps little anxious about the consequences which might ensue to public freedom, to go still farther,

further, and to promulgate as a maxim, in the like broad and unqualified way, that "the *greater* the truth, the *greater* the *libel*."'

As to the limits within which Mr. G. confines the doctrine that the truth is no justification, he observes, in referring to the authorities on the subject,

'I feel myself warranted in expressing the opinion that they lead to this conclusion; namely, that all such writings as deny to a man the possession of some such worthy quality as every man is *a priori* to be taken to possess, or such as an individual in the situation of the person to whom the particular writing relates, is to be taken to possess; or such writings as impute to an individual the commission of some vicious or unworthy act, fall within the description of writings which in the language of law-books are currently termed libels; and that, whether the writing be true or false; and without stopping to inquire what in point of fact were, or may reasonably be supposed to have been, the motives of the publisher. For the mischievous intention, which is always allowed *arguendo* to form an ingredient of the offence, is held to be an inference of law; and that no evidence of intention is necessary.'

We fully agree with the author that it should be deemed libellous to publish to the world those vices of individuals which are considered as more common and less odious, and which bring with them punishment equal to the transgression; but, although it is dévoutly to be wished that all men, who are guilty of other offences, such as Mr. G. enumerates, should feel the ill consequences of them, yet we hesitate to sanction the public exposure of them by means of the press. Such a practice appears to us to closely resemble the licence of the old Greek comedy, which was endured only in a rude age. If the interference of the press in these matters may be deemed proper, and even salutary, still it should not be allowed, we think, to pour forth naked charges, and to apply them to individuals: it should be restricted to the disguise of satire. Were the press permitted to act in any other way, we should dread the consequences; the public peace might suffer, and a wide door be opened to abuses.

Mr. George thus recapitulates his objections to this head of the law:

'The cases which have been put, are enough to shew, that there are numerous occasions in which men may, in the eye of reason and justice, innocently publish of other persons, matters which, in the books, are commonly termed libels. Here then, as it seems to me, lie some of the objections to the doctrines concerning what is a libel, and the other doctrines above mentioned and connected therewith. First, that by the doctrine so broadly advanced, concerning what is a libel, and that it is not material whether the writing be true, many

descriptions of writings, which are not only innocent but, it may be, meritorious, are nevertheless *a priori*, called *libels*. This being the case, it follows, secondly, that the maxim, which says the mischievous intention of the publisher is an inference of law, naturally operates, more or less, against inquiring into the true merits of any particular writing. Thirdly, The maxim that libels shall be punishable (if they have no other pernicious consequence, yet) as tending to a breach of the peace, being in like manner advanced without qualification or restriction, it is made to apply to writings which, as is before said, come within the general description of libels, but which are nevertheless innocent, or, it may be, meritorious. Fourthly, The last-mentioned maxim being so broadly advanced, and taking no notice of the circumstances in which the breach of the peace is to be excited, as whether by the just exposure of such profligate conduct as the interests of the public required to be exposed, inciting the profligate to revenge himself on the publisher, or by the unjust aspersion of a worthy man inciting him to the same course of proceeding, the maxim implies a consciousness of weakness in the law itself. For our natural sense of right and wrong would much rather lead us to infer, that he who has already performed the part of a noxious member of society, should be exemplarily punished for daring to maintain and justify, as it were, his former misconduct, by committing a breach of the peace on the person of him who has ventured, for the general good, to expose that misconduct, than that the latter should be held a criminal for having exposed it; and above all, for the very reason, that in so doing he might incite the vicious subject of his publication to commit a breach of the peace upon him. Fifthly, It is clear, that the law, in being made so to speak, affords indirect encouragement to vice, by sheltering the vicious, as much as in it lies, from the strong argument of public infamy. Lastly, In practice, the courts must in numerous instances, and in fact do, substantially contradict the before-mentioned doctrines, by holding that to be no libel, which according to the general doctrine is a libel, and by disregarding the tendency to a breach of the peace in such cases, notwithstanding the particular writings may in fact have as strong a tendency to a breach of the peace, as the general run of publications which are punished as libels: — The cases of criticisms of an author or an actor are in point to this.

'For all these reasons, it appears to me that the generally received notions concerning what is a libel, stand in need of correction; and that, if the maxim that libels shall be punishable as tending to a breach of the peace be to be had recourse to, as in some descriptions of writings it very properly may and seems to be necessary, the due protection of the people from the danger of suffering injustice under it, requires that the particular cases in which the maxim is to apply should be specified; by explaining what writings, containing what meanings, published of what objects, and under what circumstances, shall be deemed criminal, because such writings containing such meanings published of such objects and under such circumstances tend in fact to a breach of the peace.'

Although

Although the learning on this subject is almost generally known, it may not be unadvisable to quote the following passages from the volume before us:

'Where a libel is directed against particular individuals, it subjects the libeller to a civil action for damages at the suit of the party libelled. Now in an action at the suit of the party libelled, though not on a criminal prosecution, the defendant may justify the publication, by proving that the matters charged by the writing are true. The same writing, therefore, may be a libel in a criminal point of view, but no libel when considered in the light of a civil injury. On the other hand, I have met with no decision or dictum, that any writing in respect of which an action may be maintained as for a libel, may not also be prosecuted as a libel criminally. There is another distinction between libels considered civilly and criminally; namely, that to support an action, the libel must have been published to a third person, whereas in a criminal prosecution the sending or delivering of the libel to the person libelled is a sufficient act of publication.

'For the information of the general reader, it may be added, that the mode of proceeding against a libeller criminally, may be by indictment, or by information; but the latter mode of proceeding must be understood with leave of the court. It is to be observed, however, that the King's attorney-general exercises the privilege of filing informations *ex officio* in cases of public libel.

'The punishment of libellers is commonly by fine and imprisonment, and in being bound with sureties for good behaviour. "If the case be exorbitant, the defendant may be punished by pillory and the loss of ears." But in every particular case of libel, the court, as in other cases of misdemeanor, is to exercise its own discretion in determining the quantity and kind of punishment, taking care that the punishment be not of a kind which the law does not allow of in cases of mere misdemeanor.'

In resolving the question, What is a libel? the author considers the *form and shape* of the subject-matter of the offence, its *meaning*, and the *object* of it.—On the first point, he states that

'It is laid down, that "*saying* a libel is made of such a one, though he speaks it with malice, without repeating any part of it, is not punishable." And again, "A libel consists not in words and scandalous matter only; for that is not of itself sufficient, though spoken with never so much malice; but it is the *putting in writing, or procuring to be put in writing;* for if the words are not written, he is not guilty of the libel." In another book we find the following passage on the same subject:—"It has been already observed, that a libel may be expressed not only by printing or writing, but also by signs or pictures; but it seems that *some of these ways* are essentially necessary." The extracts given seem to lead to the following conclusion; that, in order to constitute a libel, the subject-matter complained of, must be an object of visible perception. But provided only

only it be an object of visible perception, a libel does not appear to be confined to any particular form or shape.

'Thus, a libel may be either in writing, which is technically called libel *in scriptis*, or without writing, technically called libel *sine scriptis*. Libel in writing may be effected by every mode of submitting to the eye a meaning through the medium of words; whether this be done by manual writing, or printing, or by any other method. Libel without writing may be either by emblematical pictures; as, to represent a man playing at cudgels with his wife; or by other emblematical devices, as, "to fix a gallows at a man's door or elsewhere;" to expose him by what is vulgarly termed a skimmington riding; "to carry a fellow about with horns bowing at his door." So, to send a licence to keep a public house to a peer. As a libel, so far as respects its form, may be either by writing solely, or altogether by symbolical device, so may it be compounded of both.—

'It does not seem, therefore, too general a proposition to advance, that provided only the thing complained of be an object of visible perception, any mode whatever of conveying a libellous meaning is sufficient to constitute a libel in respect of outward form.

'By the requisite, which is essential to the existence of a libel, that it be an object of visible perception, libel is distinguished from what is technically called defamation, or spoken slander.'

As to the second point:

'We are not to understand by the term meaning, the meaning actually expressed by the words of the libel in the language in which it is couched; for, besides that in libel *sine scriptis* the meaning is not conveyed by the medium of words, the literal sense of the words of the libel is commonly imperfect; and, if perfect, it may be, indeed, the very opposite to that meaning, in respect of which a party to the libel may be punishable.

'Nor by the term meaning are we to understand, what the defendant intended to express; for he may have designedly written that, which in its literal sense should be imperfect. But we are to understand the meaning which he intended others should believe him to have, the sense in which he designed his production should be received by others.

'It is, therefore, immaterial, whether a paper alledged to contain, or, rather, perhaps, to be published with a libellous meaning, expresses a meaning in full and direct terms; or the sense of what is written be imperfect; or in what style the writing be sent forth; whether, for example, the author puts a thing interrogatively, or by way of exclamation, or ironically, or clothes his meaning in allegory, or uses any figurative language whatever; provided only it appear, that the party intended to be understood to have such a libellous meaning.'

The relation which libel bears to the qualities of things is much discussed by Mr. George. Pursuing this view of his subject, he is led to an ingenious and original train of reasoning,

ing, in which our limits will not permit us to follow him, but which the reader will find to lay open the very essence of this offence.—The *objects* of libel are thus classed;

'1st, Individuals in their private characters; 2dly, individuals who have become candidates in one way or another for public favour or for fame; 3dly, the executive government, and all servants of the public in their public character; 4thly, juries, and the legislature; or either of its constituent branches, or any member of either of them in his character of member; 5thly, the Christian religion, and the principles of our civil constitution, as recognized and confirmed at the Revolution; 6thly, the public at large in its aggregate character; 7thly, the memory of persons that are dead. It will be perceived, that I do not state the objects here mentioned to be the only objects of libel, but to be the objects in relation to which it has been determined, that the offence of libel may be committed; and indeed, adjudged objects of libel may be found, which do not come within either of the descriptions mentioned; namely, the rulers of foreign countries' (with whom we are at peace).

Writings, it is observed, may be libellous on individuals, either in their private capacity, or as holding a certain rank in life, or in their profession and calling.

Mr. George takes notice of a late most extraordinary attempt to restrict the press; which, if it had succeeded, would have put an end not only to periodical but to every species of contemporaneous criticism, and which would have allowed imposture and ignorance to range uncontrouled in the republic of letters. If we can form a just idea of the charge which the Judge delivered on the occasion, by the extract from it which is here given, we must pronounce it to be not only an honour to the individual but to the profession, while it shews the scholar and the protector. It will be there seen how exactly the rules of law coincide with the interests of literature.

'The Chief Justice said, "Here the supposed libel has only attacked those works, of which the plaintiff is the avowed author; and one writer in exposing the follies and errors of another, may make use of ridicule, however poignant. Ridicule is often the fittest weapon that can be employed for such a purpose. If the reputation or pecuniary interests of the person ridiculed suffer, it is *damnum absque injuria*. Where is the liberty of the press, if an action can be maintained on such principles? Perhaps the plaintiff's Tour through Scotland (meaning a more recent work of the same author) is now unsaleable; but is he to be indemnified by receiving a compensation in damages, from the person who may have opened the eyes of the public to the bad taste and inanity of his compositions? Who would have bought the works of Sir Robert Filmer after he had been refuted by Mr. Locke? But shall it be said that he might have sustained an action for defamation against that great philosopher, who was labouring to enlighten and ameliorate mankind? We really must not

not cramp observations upon authors and their works. They should be liable to criticism, to exposure, and even to ridicule, if their compositions be ridiculous; otherwise the first who writes a book on any subject will maintain a monopoly of sentiment and opinion respecting it. This would tend to the perpetuity of error." He further said, "The works of this gentleman may be, for ought I know, very valuable; but whatever their merits, others have a right to pass their judgment upon them, — to censure them if they be censurable, and to turn them into ridicule if they be ridiculous. The critic does a great service to the public, who writes down any vapid or useless publication. He checks the dissemination of bad taste, and prevents people from wasting both their time and money upon trash. I speak of fair and candid criticism; and this every one has a right to publish, although the author may suffer a loss from it. Such a loss the law does not consider as an injury; because it is a loss which the party ought to sustain. It is, in short, the loss of fame and profits to which he was never entitled. Nothing can be conceived more threatening to the liberty of the press than the species of action before the court. We ought to resist an attempt against free and liberal criticism at the threshold." — "That it is not libellous to ridicule a literary composition or the author of it, in as far as he has embodied himself with his work; and that if he is not followed into domestic life for the purposes of personal slander, he cannot maintain an action for any damage he may suffer in consequence of being thus rendered ridiculous."'

On a perusal of the subsequent passage by itself, the doctrine of law which it states appears to be paradoxical: but, if the reader will recur to the author's account of the term *meaning*, as applied to the subject-matter of a libel, the whole will be obvious and reasonable.

'It may be collected from what has been advanced, that the legal notion of a libel differs from the notion of a libel in common parlance, principally in this: that in common parlance, generally, if not always, we require that the meaning should detract from the possession of some worthy quality really possessed by the object to which the meaning relates; while in the legal notion, if the meaning detract, in a given case, from the possession of a quality, in the denial of the possession of which any particular object of the same species, and in the same situation with the object of the meaning in the given case, may be libelled, it is, in general, immaterial whether the particular object be or be not possessed of the quality which is denied to it. In the one case, we expect to be told that the meaning is false, before we come to consider it as libellous; in the other, we are broadly told that whether the meaning be true or false is immaterial. In common parlance, we do not consider it a libel to describe a man as a thief who is a thief; but such a meaning, according to the doctrines concerning a libel in law, is equally a libel, whether the particular individual be of inflexible honesty, or notorious for the utter want of honesty.'

In

In the judgment of Mr. G., 'the motive with which matter containing a detracting meaning is published, is a very important subject for our consideration, in the inquiry, Who is punishable by law as a libeller? And it is an ingredient in the constitution of libel, which has not been perfectly well understood, — which, at least, has not in all descriptions of cases been duly attended to; if it have not in some of them been entirely overlooked.' If the law does not, reason indisputably does, support the author in this opinion.— He adds,

'There is no more reason for saying, that a man, who has published what, so far as the offence of libel depends upon publishing a certain species of meaning, may be punishable as a libel, is therefore a libeller, than that he, who has put another to death, is therefore a murderer.

'A man may have been the ignorant instrument of publishing a libel, without any fault in him; or he may have published it involuntarily; and in either case, it would be great injustice to punish the party as a libeller. The case of a servant of the post-office, who, in the common course of his employment, delivers a letter containing a libel of a third person, may be mentioned as an example of a person innocently, through ignorance, publishing a libel. The bare idea of punishing such an act could not be entertained; yet the delivery of a letter to A. containing a libel of B., is an indisputable act of publication. The case which I have supposed, therefore, shews that the act of publishing a libel is not of itself punishable.

'If the act of publishing a libel be not of itself punishable, something further is wanting; and that which can alone make acts to be criminal, namely, their springing from a mischievous intention in the party defendant, will readily shew us, that the something which must concur besides the mere act of publication, can only be an evil motive in the party.'

To us it appears clear that the law will not be in unison with the constitution, until it adopts the notion of a libel which is thus laid down by Mr. George: 'That all writings, and more especially those on subjects of a public nature, should be such as to carry with them, according to the particular mode or extent of publication that may take place, evidence of their being published with evil motives, before the publishing of them can come to be justly considered as libelling.'

In this part of his work, the author introduces his disquisition on the right, benefits, and proper boundaries of political discussion; and here the reader will not only find this grand right of the subject of a free community distinctly asserted and ably supported, but will learn how far the exercise of it is allowed as the law now stands. The objects of the disquisition are said to be 'to establish the right and benefits, and to ascertain the proper boundaries of political discussion, so far as it respects

spects the conduct of an existing legislature or government; and therein, again, chiefly, the conduct of our own legislature or government.' When we consider that this right is so essential to the well-being of man, it is a melancholy reflection that

'England, and her offspring, the United States of America, are the only two countries of the world, which, at present, enjoy even an appearance of the right. In England and in the United States of America, political discussion on the conduct of their respective legislatures and governments is exercised to a considerable extent, and not unfrequently abused. In America, more freedom appears to be exercised on this subject, than in England. Whether the right is expressly acknowledged by law in the United States; and if so, whether the boundaries of the right are there defined with any tolerable degree of precision, I cannot take upon me to determine. In England, there is no written law expressly enacting or declaring the existence of the right. The right, however, is in some degree acknowledged, or, perhaps, I should rather say, seems to be acknowledged by the several courts of law; and there being no express enactment of the right by any written law, it must be considered, so far as it is acknowledged, as a right at the common law. But I must profess to entertain the opinion, that, according to the manner in which the law is judicially expounded in cases of alleged political libels, the proper boundaries of the right of political discussion cannot be considered as being ascertained by law with any tolerable degree of perfection.'—

'It is not to be dissembled, that the exercise of political discussion is at all times viewed with a jealous eye by many among the upper ranks of society, and more especially by men in authority, or, according to the common phrase, the party in power. Men in authority would, themselves, be little inclined to spare any person, who, while ably enforcing a topic calculated to affect their continuance in office, should unluckily make a slip which could be laid hold of to subject him to punishment.

'But again, there is, in the present day, (and I would it were in my power to think that the national character has not degenerated in this respect,) a base and servile description of human beings, who, under the pretended character of supporters of the government, make it their daily business and bread, to assail, by every species of detraction, all those who have shewn themselves, or who offer promise of shewing themselves, by their writings or otherwise, to be independent politicians, and the true friends of their country. The base and servile men to whom I allude, have oftentimes succeeded with too many, but principally with the timid and uninformed, in throwing a shade over the best, the most patriotic, and, at the same time, only truly loyal characters:—for he is not a loyal man who would flatter his prince by expressing his approbation of a hurtful measure.'

For the preservation of a free constitution, Mr. G. maintains not only that the existence of this right is necessary, but that the vigilant and constant exercise of it is indispensable:

'To make known an error which has been committed in government with the view to afford means of procuring it to be remedied, or to publish the unworthiness of a public servant with the view of causing him to be removed, or removed and punished, according as his particular demerits may be deemed to require, are proper, and the principal objects of that branch of political discussion which relates to the conduct of the government, or of any servant of the public, in any department of the government.'

The doctrine that the truth is no defence, in the case of an indictment for a libel, is traced to no less an authority than Lord Coke. It occurs in a well-known case in his Reports, intitled, *de libellis famosis*. See 5 Coke's Reports, p. 125. b., where the law is thus laid down:

'"It is not material whether the libel be true, or whether the party against whom it is made be of good or ill fame;" and the reason assigned is, "for in a settled state of government, the party grieved ought to complain for any injury done him in an ordinary course of law, and not by any means to revenge himself by the odious course of libelling, or otherwise."'

In commenting on this passage, Mr. George asserts that it is no authority for the modern doctrine on this head. Alluding to the cases which relate to certain professions and public situations, he says;

'It is needless to point out to the reader, how many descriptions of cases there are, to which this reason is altogether inapplicable. Notwithstanding all that has been broadly advanced in later times, concerning truth being no justification, but rather, an aggravation of the imputed offence, the above passage appears to contemplate only libels against persons in their private characters; — at least, it cannot fail to be seen, that the reason assigned why "it is not material whether the libel be true," is applicable only to cases where the libeller has sustained an injury from the person libelled, for which he might have obtained legal redress. The passage, therefore, is no sort of authority against the general right of publishing truth concerning the conduct of the public affairs.'—

'The whole case, indeed, argues a want of any sort of idea concerning the existence of such a thing as political discussion. And with the exception of those parts of it, which describe generally what is a libel, against whom it may be made, how published, and how proceeded against, the case seems to me to deserve no other character than that of being a desultory and amusing invective against libelling. In a word, nothing can be conceived more loose and unsatisfactory, for the ground-work of any branch of criminal law.'

The excellent remarks and the manly opinion, which follow, will be perused with great satisfaction by every person who is duly jealous of our liberties:

'It

'It is to be observed of the case in question, that it was decided, and the doctrines contained in it advanced, in the time of the Stuarts, and that it was the offspring of the tyrannical court of Star-chamber.

'To no better foundation in authority than this, is to be traced the modern practice of indiscriminately refusing, as well in cases charged to be libels on the several objects of libel under our consideration, as in cases of libel against individuals in their private characters, to receive the truth of the matters published, as evidence in favour of a defendant. The dependent, and, for that reason, as well as others, too commonly servile judges in the times of the Stuarts, and more particularly the Chief-justices Scroggs and Jeffreys, not only acted upon the doctrine that truth in matters of a public nature affords no sort of justification, but also broached many doctrines with regard to libel, manifestly contrary to law. Many of the decisions of these men have been subsequently departed from. But, what it is hardly necessary to inform even the general reader, Judges, generally speaking, are bound by the decisions of their predecessors: and this circumstance, as it seems to me, can alone account for the doctrine having still prevailed, that truth is not admissible even as evidence in favour of a defendant, in the class of cases under consideration. Considering, however, the source to which the doctrine is to be traced, and thinking that it is founded neither in wisdom, nor justice, nor (assuming an evil motive to be essential to the offence of libel) in common sense, I feel myself warranted in having above expressed the opinion that it cannot be law.'

It is satisfactory to think that the doctrine here opposed, which is so derogatory to the law, is properly no part of it, but an abuse which crept into its administration in the worst of times, and under the worst of men.

To those who duly estimate our free constitution, what subject can be of such lively interest, and of such vital importance, as that which is treated in these pages? It is here demonstrated that the right of unrestrained discussion is essential to such a constitution, and that the latter cannot exist without the unfettered exercise of the former. Libels on private individuals are cruel and detestable, and cannot be too severely visited: but those which apply to persons in public situations, or who follow professions or occupations which refer immediately to the public, are best avenged by forbearance, and by the demonstration of merit which shall put the authors of them to shame. In a long established free government, like our own, might not the proceeding by indictment be, in a great degree, restricted to the cases of private individuals; while public characters should be required, in the first instance, to proceed by civil action, and not permitted to prefer indictments except where damages had been awarded in such action? We would allow of this course, because we have no desire to screen real and

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aggravated guilt: but we cannot see any good reason why a man should be put on his trial otherwise than by the intervention of a jury. A circumstance, which has been communicated to us, seems strongly to corroborate our sentiments on this subject: viz. that an eminent person * who lately filled the situation of attorney-general, under an administration which was not supposed to have more than its due share of the royal countenance, during the time of his being in office, (which was more than a year,) filed only one criminal information; and that was, as we have been informed, for a wilful falsehood, directly tending to excite mutiny in a large fleet which was equipping to proceed on a foreign expedition. His successor did not copy his example, but he dropped this prosecution. This instance will shew that government can proceed, for a time at least, on the principles laid down in the volume before us, and that the learned and worthy individual to whom we allude holds these principles.

The author of the other work, of which the title is prefixed to this article, is contented to state and expound the law as it is. In his view of that law, the head of it which he treats is not unsettled, labours under no defects, and contains no doctrines which are at variance with cases, or with the principles of the constitution: indeed, he states the object of his performance to be to point out the conformity of the doctrine and the practice of the law of libel with the acknowleged common law of the land; and to shew that the few peculiarities of this law are, rather, what he calls necessary properties of the nature of the subject, than arbitrary deviations from the general principles of the law. He sees nothing in the theory or the practice of this part of the law, that requires amendment or correction; according to him the one is perfect, and the other is unexceptionable. How much labour would such notions spare us! All that we are required to do is to understand what our ancestors have done, and never to deviate from their track, but always to tread in their steps. To examine what they have handed down to us, to correct errors, and to introduce improvements, would be impertinent and mischievous. Mr. Holt seems unwilling to be supposed not to admit the existence of our constitutional rights, but apparently entertains no doubt that the present doctrines and practice with regard to the law of libel are perfectly consistent with the enjoyment and exercise of them. Had he seen Mr. George's work before he sent his own production to the press, he would probably at least have adverted more particularly than he has done to the

* Sir Arthur Piggot.

alleged discordancy. He bestows his approbation on the adjudications in the cases of Holt, the Newark Printer, and of Winterbottom: but we cannot join even in the partial praise which he allots to the Star-chamber; nor are we of the opinion which he seems to entertain, that severe measures and harsh punishments advance the security of a free state.

On a comparison of the two works included in the present article, it will be seen that Mr. George's breast is fired with zeal for our constitutional rights, and that Mr. Holt's bias leans to the maintenance of authority and rule; that Mr. George has a view to the correction and improvement of the laws, while Mr. Holt would stamp on them immutability: but that both concur in appreciating highly our civil fabric, are equally impressed with its inestimable value, and are in the same degree desirous of promoting its stability and security, although they would employ widely different means for this purpose. If, however, we think that Mr. Holt has not laid the constitution under obligations to his labours, we must admit that the statements, observations, and authorities, which are to be found in his volume, impart to it an interest and value which will be felt by all descriptions of readers, but more particularly by the young advocate.

ART. IX. *The Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, from their Commencement in 1665 to the Year 1800, abridged, with Notes and Biographic Illustrations. By Charles Hutton, LL.D., F.R.S., George Shaw, M.D., F.R.S., F.L.S., and Richard Pearson, M.D., F.A.S. 4to. 18 Vols. 38l. 6s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin.

IN our xlviiith Volume, we made a brief report of the general nature and object of this undertaking, as far as it had proceeded at that time; and the whole being now completed, it may not be improper to take some farther notice of a publication which is so considerable from its bulk and from the importance of its contents. Altogether, we are disposed to retain our former opinions, both respecting the desirableness of the work and the manner in which it is executed. A considerable part of the value of the original depends on its authenticity, as displaying a correct view of the progress of knowlege; and it is much more interesting on this account than from the absolute information which it contains, and which, at least with respect to the earlier volumes, might be better obtained from more modern sources. Whether the public would have afforded sufficient encouragement to a new edition of the Transactions themselves, in a cheap form, we do not profess

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to be competent to decide: but we think that, for every purpose of science, it would have been incomparably more desirable. The history of natural philosophy in all its branches exhibits such a succession of revolutions in opinion, and such a diversity in the statement of what has been considered as matter of fact, that a series of volumes like the Transactions of the Royal Society, after the lapse of a few years, is seldom read except by those who are studying a subject with peculiar minuteness, and who wish to trace it through all its successive stages and gradual developement. As a work for reference, however, any attempt at abridgment or mutilation, though carefully and judiciously executed, must nearly destroy its utility; and, notwithstanding our confidence in the ability of the present editors, every one who has the means of consulting the original documents must prefer to have recourse to them.

We have already given some account of the plan which has been pursued in forming this abridgment. Several of the papers are inserted nearly in their original form, a few are curtailed, and some are wholly omitted; the papers which were written in Latin are translated; and those that are not abridged have their style and mode of spelling occasionally modernized. In the selection of the memoirs, we think that the editors have generally shewn judgment: but such cases afford room for the greatest latitude of opinion; and perhaps no two persons who had gone over the same ground would have pursued exactly the same track. Almost all the merit of the work, however, obviously depends on the discretion which has been exercised in the choice of the materials; and, in order to give our readers an opportunity of judging in some measure on this point, we shall compare certain portions of the abridgment with the original volumes, confining ourselves to those papers which treat on natural philosophy, chemistry, or medicine.

The tenth volume contains about three of the original volumes, comprizing the Transactions from the year 1750 to 1755 inclusive. The Chemical papers enumerated in the index are only 15 in number. Four of these are written by Hales; and the information which they afford is not at present very interesting, but is for the most part superseded; yet they are transcribed nearly without alteration. Three papers are by Pringle, in which his doctrines concerning putrefaction are developed;- and these are quoted nearly word for word. When they were composed, they were considered as very important, and they were received as the basis of an ingenious hypothesis: but they are now little regarded, except as being the productions of a man of abilities. Among the chemical papers are classed M. Herissant's Experiments on Vegetable Poisons,

prepared by the Peruvian Indians, and the memoir is given nearly in its original form. It is not without some value, but should rather have been classed among the physiological than the chemical papers. Watson's Remarks on a Process for freshening Salt Water, which, we believe, is never practised, might have been omitted; as well as another paper on the freshening Power of Lime Water: but they are both transcribed nearly verbatim. The same remarks apply to Brownrigg's Observations on Hales's Method of Distillation.

A long paper by Huxham, on Antimony, is dismissed with the following short notice: 'In the present advanced state of pharmaceutical chemistry, it is deemed unnecessary to reprint this long paper on the different preparations of antimony. Dr. H. particularly recommends his so called essence of antimony, or vinum antimoniale, prepared by infusing either the glass of antimony or regulus of antimony in white wine. This he preferred to every other antimonial medicine.' We acknowlege that the information, which was originally conveyed by Dr. Huxham's paper, is now very much superseded by later experiments and discoveries; yet the same remark applies, and nearly in an equal degree, to other articles which have been admitted into the abridgment. The author was also a man of so much information and science, that his writings ought not to be consigned to oblivion; although we should, in the present day, derive but little practical utility from them. Dr. Wall's paper on the Malvern Springs is properly omitted, because it has since been republished in an enlarged form.

By far the most valuable chemical paper in this volume, and indeed almost the only one which can be considered as having retained its importance, is Lewis's Account of Platina. This, however, appears to be omitted in the systematic index; and Dr. Brownrigg's communication on the same subject is inserted among the mineralogical papers. An account of the Copper Springs in Ireland, consisting principally of a chemical analysis, is also placed under the head of mineralogy.

The 10th volume also includes 16 papers classed under the head of Medicine: but the distinction between medicine, physiology, and surgery, is not very accurately observed. Several of these papers are properly curtailed, as one by Dr. Bayly on the Use of Bark in Small-pox, an Account of the Iliac Passion by De Castro, different papers on Medical Electricity, &c.; and various communications on the Use of Agaric and Lycoperdon, as styptics to restrain hæmorrhages, are omitted or passed over with a slight notice. Generally speaking, considerably more retrenchment has been exercised in this department than in that of Chemistry, yet much that is left is not of any very great value.

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The two most interesting papers are one by Pringle on Jail Fever, and one by Le Cat on the Malignant Fever which raged at Rouen about the middle of the last century.

Of the memoirs on Surgery, which are 50 in number, many possess but little value. Some, however, may still claim a share of our attention, and may be read with advantage by the practical surgeon. The best are those by Le Cat, Warner, and Sharp. A paper by Wathen, on removing Obstructions from the Eustachian Tube, appears to us of considerable value: the history of the man who swallowed melted lead at the burning of the Edystone Light-house, by Spry and Huxham, is to be regarded as an authentic relation of a curious matter of fact; and Sir Hans Sloane's Account of the introduction of Inoculation in this Country must still be regarded as an interesting historical document.

Twenty four biographical sketches are also given in this volume; of which those that relate to Heberden, Pringle, and Russel are among the most valuable.

In the 18th and last volume, we have abridgments of the original work from the second part of the year 1796 to the year 1800 inclusive. The Chemical papers enumerated in the systematic index are only 12 in number, but they are of much greater value than those of the preceding volume. Three are written by Mr. Hatchett, two by Mr. Tennant, two by Dr. Henry, and the remainder by Dr. Pearson, M. Crell, Mr. Biggin, Dr. Hulme, and Mr. Howard. Some of the other papers might properly be classed in the chemical department; such as that of Count Rumford on the Chemical Properties of Light, which is placed under the head of Optics; Tennant on the Diamond, inserted among the mineralogical papers; Hatchett on the Nature of Membrane, placed in the same section; and Wollaston on Gouty and Urinary Concretions, classed under physiology. All these memoirs are reprinted nearly in the original words.

The papers on Anatomy are nine, six of which are from the pen of Sir Ev. Home; with ten papers on Physiology, and three only on Medicine and Surgery. These, like the former, are almost exactly transcribed. The only biographical notice is that of Dr. N. Hulme.

In fine, that these abridged Transactions contain a large mass of very valuable matter is certain: but we are disposed to think that the public would have been more gratified, either by a complete reprint of the works themselves, or by what might more properly be considered as an abstracted abridgment.

ART. X. *An Introduction to Medical Literature*, including a System of practical Nosology. Intended as a Guide to Students and an Assistant to Practitioners. Together with detached Essays, on the Study of Physic, on Classification, on Chemical Affinities, on Animal Chemistry, on the Blood, and on the Medical Effects of Climates. By Thomas Young, M.D., F.R. and L.S., &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 600. 18s. Boards. Underwood and Blacks, &c. 1813.

WE have here a work which displays a considerable share both of industry and of erudition, and which will probably be regarded as a performance of standard merit: yet we must not conceal our opinion that it is in some respects defective, and that the author has not in every instance employed his acknowleged talents to the greatest advantage. His principal object is to afford a book of reference on all subjects connected with medical literature, chemistry, pharmacy, the different branches of anatomy, physiology, pathology, the practice of medicine, and the materia medica. We agree with him that this species of *bibliotheca* is a desideratum in our language; and, as far as we are acquainted with the elaborate productions of the German writers, they by no means possess that share of merit which would induce us to be desirous of a mere translation of them. While they are tediously minute in their references to the older continental authors, whose volumes are scarcely ever consulted, except as objects of mere curiosity, they are very defective in the account of the English, and more particularly of the detached essays which have appeared in our different periodical works. We cannot, however, entirely coincide with Dr. Young in the validity of the apology which he makes for the imperfection of his own composition: viz. 'The non-existence of any work in the English language, resembling that which is now offered to the public, while the subject is of the most undeniable importance, must be admitted as an apology for its appearing with many imperfections, which, although they might have been, and may yet be diminished, by a greater portion of labour and attention, are still in some degree obviously inseparable from the nature of the undertaking.' The non-existence of any book like his own in the English language may have rendered his undertaking more laborious: but this circumstance should rather have induced him to make additional exertions, than to rest satisfied with imperfections which it is confessed might have been avoided.

On these defects, however, especially when they are so candidly acknowleged, we are not disposed to dwell with too much severity; nor indeed do they form the principal source of the objections which we shall offer against the result of Dr. Young's

labours. The grand error, into which he has fallen, is an attempt to write a body of reference with a great variety of new terms and systematical arrangements. Surely a most material point to be attempted in such a production, which is professedly intended as a guide to the student of medicine, is the facility of reference. The author objects to the alphabetical form, because, he says, it leaves him 'who consults it always in uncertainty whether he may not have failed of obtaining a considerable part of the information which it contains, for want of knowing under what appellation he ought to look for it.' Without professing to be the unqualified advocates for this arrangement, we cannot but remark that the objections against it may be easily obviated by a proper distribution of the articles, and the introduction of a sufficient number of synonyms: but we fear that no mechanical aid of any kind could enable the student, or even the greater number of established practitioners, to detect the information which they may require, obscured as it is in Dr. Young's pages by a multitude of new (or at least unusual) denominations, and those classed in so novel a manner that, without the aid of an alphabetical index, it would probably elude the search of the most sagacious inquirer.

The volume begins with a Preliminary Essay on the Study of Physic, containing some sensible remarks, many of them professedly taken from Vogel. We have next a number of aphorisms, relating to the principles of classification, chiefly extracted from the *Philosophia Botanica* of Linné. Of the value of this treatise, only one opinion can be entertained: but of the propriety of its application to medicine we have great doubt; and we think that it was wholly unnecessary to occupy so much space with quotations from a book which may be found in every library. The third section, which includes the great body of the volume, begins by references to those authors who have treated on medical literature in general, and then gives a list of periodical journals, of historical and biographical works, of books on the study of medicine, collections of treatises on particular subjects, the collected writings of authors, general and miscellaneous productions, and publications on chemistry. The lists of references on these different subjects we conceive to be very valuable; although we might perhaps point out some omissions and some redundancies. An attempt is made to estimate the different shades of merit in several of the principal performances, by printing the names in capitals or italics, or by prefixing asterisks to them; and occasional short remarks are added, expressive of their character. In the difficult task of giving to each writer his due degree of importance, we think that Dr. Young has generally been judicious: but we regret

that the greatest part of his characteristic remarks are extracted from Rothe, a writer in whose decisions we are not disposed to acquiesce.

After the list of references to chemical writers, the author presents us with tables of the properties of different substances, in the arrangement of which he appears to be chiefly guided by the new electro-chemical principles. All substances are divided into eight classes, viz. Elements, Alkalies, Oxyds, Compositions, Acids, Semi-acids, Salts, and Semi-salts. There are four orders of elements, viz. 1. Empyreal Substances, those that are negatively electrical, and support combustion with substances positively electrical. This order consists only of oxygen and chlorine, but to the latter the author judiciously prefixes a note of interrogation. 2. The Metallic Substances. 3. Pyrophoric, consisting of bodies that are positively electrical, combustible with oxygen, and void of metallic lustre. 4. This order is intitled Indeterminate, and contains only muriatium, or the supposed base of the muriatic acid; which, as in the case of chlorine, is accompanied by a note of interrogation. The class of oxyds is divided into three orders, simple, binary, and ternary; and the same division is adopted with respect to the acids. In the class of semi-acids, are placed the Prussic, Gallic, Tannic, and Hydrotheic, or sulfurated hydrogen; and the eighth class, the semi-salts, includes the compounds of the semi-acids.

Chemistry is followed by Anatomy, which occupies about 25 pages, and consists principally of a mere enumeration of the bones, muscles, viscera, arteries, veins, absorbents, and nerves. These specifications might, we think, have been very well spared, as they appear to serve no useful purpose: but they are interspersed with valuable lists of references to the authors who have treated on the different parts of the body.—The succeeding division of the work, on Physiology, is much more interesting, and is one of the best portions of the whole; the references are here also very copious, and are arranged under the different functions, in such a manner as to afford a complete introduction to the study of this science.

We next arrive at the most important part of the system, that to which all the rest may be regarded as more or less subservient, the account of nosology and practice. Before we enter on the arrangement of diseases, we have several sets of references; to general and miscellaneous works, on surgery, morbid appearances, and local affections, works relating to particular ages and sexes, to particular employments, and to climates, and works on exotic, popular, veterinary, and forensic medicine. These references are very copious; and if the arrangement of

them be not perhaps in all respects the best that might have been adopted, they appear on the whole so valuable, that we are not disposed to dwell on minute defects. At the end of the different lists, is added, here as well as in other places, a simple catalogue of names, the meaning and object of which are not very evident. For example, after the section of general and miscellaneous books, we have 52 names placed in succession; to which that of Vogel is added, probably indicating that they are quoted or mentioned by this writer. We shall transcribe this list, because it may afford some amusement to our readers to be introduced to so large a circle of medical authors, with the greatest part of whom they were perfectly unacquainted:

' " Medicus, Grainger, Glass, Grimm, Monteaux, Unzer, Baldinger, Kaempf, Lettsom, Bosch, Thilenius, Fritze, Schäffer, Isenflamm, Marcard, Kloeckhof, C. L. Hoffmann, Thompson, Burggrave, Strack, Wendt, Rosenstein, Piquer, Eller, Gardiner, Vachier, Lyson, Senac, Riegler, Wagler, Lorry, Girtanner, Elsner, Bacher, Böttger, Chicoyneau, Schilling, Poupart, Fothergill, Andry, Michell, Collin, Haeberl, Campbell, Senft, Weikard, Scherf, Mellin, Birnstiel, Bond, Lepecq de la Cloture, Taube." Vogel.'

Dr. Young arranges all diseases in five classes, under the names of Paraneurismi, Parhæmasiæ, Pareccrises, Paramorphiæ, and Ectopiæ. The first four include all diseases which depend on the vital action; and the fifth is denominated mechanical affections. Class 1. consists of nervous diseases, such as depend on the nervous and muscular systems; the second, of sanguine diseases, such as depend on the sanguiferous system; the third, of secretory diseases, or such as are connected with the state of the secretions; and the fourth, of structural diseases, or those that are connected with the nutritive powers. The nervous class is not subdivided into orders; it corresponds to the neuroses of Cullen. The sanguine diseases are formed into two orders, *phlogismi*, which are described as affecting only or primarily the minute blood-vessels, and the *pyrexiæ*, or fevers. The pareccrises, or secretory diseases, are arranged under the three orders *epischeses*, *apocenoses*, and *cacochymiæ*; retentions, effusions, and cachexies: the first signifying that the secretion is diminished or obstructed, the second that it is morbidly increased in quantity, and the third that its quality is vitiated. The class of paramorphiæ, or structural diseases, is divided into two orders, *paraphymata*, or local changes, which are stated as being principally confined to a single part of the body; and *epiphymata*, or eruptions, defined to be ' structural diseases frequently repeated, especially on the surface of the body,

body, the whole system appearing to be affected.' The fifth class is not divided into orders.

These classes and orders are then subdivided into genera and species, and under each species are placed copious lists of references. The first of the nervous diseases is *carus*, translated apoplexy, or entrancement; it is defined to be 'a suspension of the powers of sense and motion, more or less perfect, with an appearance of sleep, the motion of the heart remaining uninterrupted.' Five species are enumerated, *lethargus*, *hydrocephalus*, *apoplexia*, *traumaticus*, and *venenatus*. We transcribe the references to *lethargus* and *hydrocephalus*:

'*Carus lethargus*. Galen loc. aff. IV. ii.; on coma, cl. 3. Cael. Aur. II. 2. c. 3. Willis an. brut. Pathol. c. 3—5. Bellin. morb. cap. 455. Lancis. sub. mort. 100. Wepfer obs. 355. *Morgagni*, ep. 6. de affectibus soporosis. *Brady*, Med. obs. inq. I. 280.; daily. *Smith* and others, Med. obs. inq. VI. 180.; stupor. Med. comm. Ed. VI. 418.? from *Boyer*; 5 days' sleep. *Swieten*, 1010. Stoll prael. 348. Baldinger kr. 206. Gallot, Journ. med. XLIV. Cheyne on apoplexy.' —

'*Carus hydrocephalus*. Apoplexia hydrocephalica, Cull. syn. xlii. 3. Hippocr. on dis. Foes. II. 466. Bartholin. H. anat. I. 28. Mauriceau, II. 487. Tulp. I. 24, 25. Duverney, Ac. Par. 1704. 8. Petit, Ac. Par. 1718. Ruysch obs. n. 52.; thes. an. II. Stalpart, II. 14. Wepfer obs. 49... Whytt's works, 725. Ed. med. ess. II. 18. *Mowat*, Ed. med. ess. III. 332.; *Paisley*, 333. Lecat on a trocart, Phil. trans. 1751, 267. *Morgagni*, ep. 12. de hydrocephalo et hydrorachitide. *Fothergill*, Med. obs. inq. IV. 40.; *Watson*, 78. 321. Armstr. dis. ch. Hydrocephalus interior, *Sauvages*, II. 496.; Asthenia ab hydrocephalo, I. 802. Gaudelius, Sandif. thes. II. Stoll rat. med. VII. *D. Monro*, Med. tr. Lond. II. 325. *Percival*, Med. comm. Ed. V. 174.; Simmons, 415.; blisters.; VI. 219.; Remmett, 440. Dunc. cas. 180. Quin de hydrocephalo interno. 8. Ed. 1779; Smellie Thes. IV. 135.; Webster m. pr. III. 22.; Dunc. med. comm. VII. 69.; *Mackie*, 282.; *Willan*, 322. *Odier*, M. Soc. R. med. III. 195. Loftie, med. obs. inq. V. *Aery*, Lond. med. journ. I. 424.; Dunc. med. comm. VIII. 332.; mercury. *White*, Lond. med. journ. III. 402.; blisters. *Eason*. Dunc. med. comm. VIII. 325.; mercury. *Wier*, Lond. med journ. IV. 78. 393. *Campbell*, Dunc. Med. comm. IX. 240. *Michaelis*, Med. commun. I. 404.; partial paralysis. *Dobson*, Med. obs. inq. VI. 48.; *Dr. J. Hunter*, 52.; *Haygarth*, 58. Dunc. med. comm. X. 149.; *Evans*, 299.; leeches and diaphoretics; *Dixon*, 312.; brain become membranous; *Perkins*, XI. 298.; fatal after salivation, Monro on dropsy. Withering on digitalis. *J. Moseley*, Lond. med. journ. VI. 113.; mercury. *Hooper*, M. Med. soc. Lond. I. 165.; *Lettsom*, 169. *Warren*, Lond. med. journ. IX. 122.; *Ford*, XI. 56. *Gebagan*, Dunc. med. comm. XIII. 353.; after pleurisy. Bucholz, Bald. N. M. I. 481. II. 130.; Meir, IV. 1. Bald. N. M. VIII. 180. Rosenstein kinderkr. *Jameson*, M. Med. soc. Lond. III. 414. *Percival*, Med. facts. I. 111. *Cribb*, M. Med. soc. Lond.

Lond. IV. 400. *Haxby*, Dunc. ann. 1799, 434.; after an enlargement of a vertebra. *Baillie*'s engr. 213. *A. Monro*, Paterson de hydrocephalo; Dunc. ann. 1803, 364. Phrenitis hydrocephalica. Kirby tab. mat. med. If we retain the term febricula in Cullen's definition, as including the acute stage, this denomination is a very proper one. *Ed.* med. journ. II. 52.; diagnosis from worms. *Gapper*, M. Med. soc. Lond. VI. 50.; mercury. *Kuhn*, Ed. med. journ. III. 13. *Cheyne* on hydrocephalus acutus. 8. Ed. 1808; Ed. med. journ. IV. 341. *W. Cooke*, Medicoch. tr. II. 17.; with disease of the liver, and premature pubescence.'

In some cases, the species are subdivided into varieties, as *carus apoplexia* into *sanguinea* and *serosa*.

From the specimen which has been given, our readers will perceive how valuable a fund of information is contained in this part of Dr. Young's work. It would require a long discussion to enter fully into the merits of the nosological arrangement which he has employed: we think that, on the whole, it deserves praise, but it is certainly very far from being that perfect system which the remarks of the author might have led us to expect. A prominent error seems to pervade the system, which arises from his having viewed the subject theoretically rather than practically. A nosologist ought to notice each particular disease, and endeavour to give an accurate definition of it which, while it clearly points out the leading features of the malady in question, sufficiently discriminates it from every other with which it is likely to be confounded; and, after having formed a number of these well defined species, he should proceed to observe the analogies which they bear to each other, and group them into genera, and, lastly, into orders and classes. Dr. Young, however, has apparently followed a contrary plan. He has begun by considering to what functions the changes of the body are obnoxious, has made these supposed changes the foundation of his genera and species, and has endeavoured to fill up the divisions with such diseases as seemed the most suitable for them. Hence it will be found that his nosology has much more the appearance than the reality of being a natural arrangement; and that what it gains in the excellence of its generalizations will be lost in the difficulty of applying it to practice. We shall bring only one illustration of our remark, which we think is quite sufficient to characterize the whole system. To no part of nosology has so much attention been paid as to that of the classification of febrile diseases; and, though much difference of opinion often exists respecting the nature of particular cases or epidemics, yet, in the meaning of the terms employed, medical writers are almost generally agreed. Dr. Young has however materially altered our nomenclature, without making any addition to our knowlege of the

the nature or phænomena of the diseases. In the first genus, under the order *pyrexia*, is *cauma*, the term which it employs to designate inflammatory fever; and under this order the author not only includes those diseases which are usually placed in this class, the local inflammations attended with febrile action, but also hæmorrhages, gout, and measles. In the order *synochus* he arranges, besides the *synochus simplex* and the *synochus icterodes*, the miliary eruption, small-pox, cow-pox, and chicken-pox. Under the order of typhus-fever, we have seven species; *typhus simplex*, denominated common nervous fever, — *putridus*, or putrid fever, — bilious, which we suppose is the same with the *synochus icterodes* in the last order, — thrush, — scarlet fever, — *pemphigus*, — and the plague. The other orders of the pyrexiæ are *erysipelas*, — *anetus*, which is employed to denominate intermittent fever, — *defluxio*, or catarrhal fever, — and hectic. We are not unwilling to allow some ingenuity to Dr. Young's ideas, and some foundation for many of his alterations: but, on the other hand, we are very decidedly of opinion that those alterations are much too numerous and too incautiously admitted; and that, in connection with the frequent change of nomenclature, they must very much diminish the value of the compilation as a book of reference. The alteration of names appears to us as injudicious and as unnecessary as that of the classification: in some instances, we are unable to trace the origin of the term; and in many cases we think that the common one is quite as proper, or even preferable.

A very important part of the volume is the section treating on Pharmacology. The arrangement adopted on this subject is peculiar to the author, and is intitled to the same kind of qualified commendation which we bestowed on the former sections; it is often ingenious, but frequently also inapplicable to practice. The articles of the materia medica are placed in 30 classes under the following names, and to each set is subjoined (as usual) a valuable list of references: caustics, antiseptics, antidotes, demulcents, diluents, nutrients, expergefacients, excitants, calefacients, sudorifics, errhines, sialagogues, expectorants, stomachics, emetics, cathartics, carminatives, diuretics, emmenagogues, epispastics, suppuratories, sorbefacients, astringents, tonics, narcotics, sedatives, nauseants, diaphoretics, exhaurients, and specifics.

We must now take our leave of this publication; respecting which we shall only repeat that, though it has considerable defects and is liable to many objections, it possesses great excellences, and will obtain permanent repute.

ART.

ART. XI. *The Corsair*, a Tale. By Lord Byron. 8vo. 5s. 6d. sewed. Murray. 1814.

WE closed our Review of "The Bride of Abydos" (in our last Number) with expressing a wish that we might soon have occasion to meet Lord Byron again: but we scarcely expected that the pleasure for which we hoped was even then prepared for us. His Lordship's works, however, have lately followed each other so rapidly that, if the subjects which he has chosen for his muse did not derive their lustre rather from the coruscation of genius than from the lamp of thought, we fear that much responsibility would attach to him on the score of precipitancy. As it is, we think that such a charge is not wholly groundless, and that evidence in support of it might be adduced from the plot and the composition of the tale before us. Indeed, a similar conviction in the noble author's own mind may perhaps be inferred from the declaration, made in the dedication of the present poem, that this is the last production with which he shall 'trespass on public patience for some years.' The Corsair *, however, is possessed of great merit; and in this respect it must rank far before any other effort of the author's pen, that it contains one whole character drawn with uncommon force and discrimination. Conrad is stained with all sorts of crimes; he is (as we are to presume) an outlaw from society; he is a pirate, and a murderer: but, with all this, he loves with truth and feeling; and the manner in which this passion is blended with the others that may be supposed to inhabit the mind of such a being, and in which its influence on his actions are displayed, shews not only an intimate acquaintance with the human heart, but great judgment and power of effect. The predominance of revenge in the mind of a woman has been often displayed: but the poet has seldom, if ever, ventured to carry his portraiture of it beyond the point at which the passion attains its gratification. Lord Byron, however, has now attempted to describe, in the character of Gulnare, the return to that natural softness which must ever form a prevailing feature in the female character: though we suspect that his Lordship felt the difficulty of the task, since he has abandoned it almost as soon as it was undertaken. The other personages display no novelty,

* We have heard a charge of misnomer again in this case. The term *corsair* has been so constantly applied to the cruizers of the Barbary-states, that it has been supposed to belong to them only: but, in fact, the word is entirely synonimous with pirate. It comes to us and to the French from the Italians, who use "*Corsare*" or "*Corsale*," indifferently; and in that language "*corseggiare*" signifies generally *to pirate*.

and

and afford little interest: two characters, however, are enough for three cantos.

We congratulate Lord Byron on his return to the standard heroic measure, if we may use that expression, of our language; convinced as we have always been that (in spite of the charges of monotony so often made, and so often refuted,) it is better calculated for all the various purposes of a poem of narration than any other metre; and conceiving that a *melometric* poem has no more warrant in taste than authority in criticism. We wish that he had also abstained from the modern practice of numbering the paragraphs; which, while it answers no good end that might not equally be obtained by the old fashioned and ordinary mode of dividing them, tends to break and embarrass the sense, on a first perusal.

The opening of the poem depicts, in a lively and spirited manner, the life and feelings of the pirate:

" O'er the glad waters of the dark blue sea,
Our thoughts, as boundless, and our souls as free,
Far as the breeze can bear, the billows foam,
Survey our empire and behold our home!
These are our realms, no limits to their sway —
Our flag the sceptre all who meet obey.
Ours the wild life in tumult still to range
From toil to rest, and joy in every change.
Oh, who can tell? not thou, luxurious slave!
Whose soul would sicken o'er the heaving wave;
Not thou, vain lord of wantonness and ease!
Whom slumber soothes not — pleasure cannot please —
Oh, who can tell, save he whose heart hath tried,
And danc'd in triumph o'er the waters wide,
The exulting sense — the pulse's maddening play,
That thrills the wanderer of that trackless way?
That for itself can woo the approaching fight,
And turn what some deem danger to delight;
That seeks what cravens shun with more than zeal,
And where the feebler faint — can only feel —
Feel — to the rising bosom's inmost core,
Its hope awaken and its spirit soar?
No dread of death — if with us die our foes —
Save that it seems even duller than repose:
Come when it will — we snatch the life of life —
When lost — what recks it — by disease or strife?
Let him who crawls enamoured of decay,
Cling to his couch, and sicken years away;
Heave his thick breath; and shake his palsied head;
Ours — the fresh turf, * and not the feverish bed.

* This expression is scarcely allowable,

" When Ocean shrouds and sepulchres our dead;"

see the sixth line in sequence. *Rev.*

While

While gasp by gasp he faulters forth his soul,
Ours with one pang — one bound — escapes controul.
His corse may boast it's urn and narrow cave,
And they who loath'd his life may gild his grave:
Ours are the tears, though few, sincerely shed,
When Ocean shrouds and sepulchres our dead.
For us, even banquets fond regret supply
In the red cup that crowns our memory;
And the brief epitaph in danger's day,
When those who win at length divide the prey,
And cry, Remembrance saddening o'er each brow,
How had the brave who fell exulted *now!*"

The description and character of Conrad (the Corsair) form the next passage that attracts notice:

"Unlike the heroes of each ancient race,
Demons in act, but Gods at least in face,
In Conrad's form seems little to admire,
Though his dark eye-brow shades a glance of fire:
Robust but not Herculean — to the sight
No giant frame sets forth his common height;
Yet in the whole — who paused to look again
Saw more than marks the crowd of vulgar men —
They gaze and marvel how — and still confess
That thus it is, but why they cannot guess.
Sun-burnt his cheek — his forehead, high and pale,
The sable curls in wild profusion veil;
And oft perforce his rising lip reveals
The haughtier thought it curbs, but scarce conceals.
Though smooth his voice, and calm his general mien,
Still seems there something he would not have seen:
His feature's deepening lines and varying hue,
At times attracted, yet perplex'd the view,
As if within that murkiness of mind
Work'd feelings fearful, and yet undefined:
Such might it be — that none could truly tell —
Too close enquiry his stern glance could quell.
There breathe but few whose aspect could defy
The full encounter of his searching eye; —
He had the skill, when cunning's gaze would seek
To probe his heart and watch his changing cheek,
At once the observer's purpose to espy,
And on himself roll back his scrutiny,
Lest he to Conrad rather should betray
Some secret thought — than drag that chief's to day.
There was a laughing Devil in his sneer,
That raised emotions both of rage and fear;
And where his frown of hatred darkly fell,
Hope withering fled — and Mercy sighed farewell!

"Slight are the outward signs of evil thought,
Within — within — 'twas there the spirit wrought!

Love

Love shows all changes — hate, ambition, guile,
Betray no further than the bitter smile;
The lip's least curl, the lightest paleness thrown
Along the govern'd aspect, speak alone
Of deeper passions; and to judge their mien,
He, who would see, must be himself unseen.
Then — with the hurried step, the upward eye,
The clenched hand, the pause of agony,
That listens, starting, lest the step too near
Approach intrusive on that mood of fear;
Then — with each feature working from the heart,
With feelings loosed to strengthen — not depart —
That rise — convulse — subside — that freeze, or glow,
Flush in the cheek, or damp upon the brow,
Then — Stranger! if thou canst, and tremblest not,
Behold his soul — the rest that soothes his lot!
Mark — how that lone and blighted bosom sears
The scathing thought of execrated years!
Behold — but who hath seen, or e'er shall see,
Men as himself — the secret spirit free?'

We think that the close of this delineation is peculiarly fine, though the diction of a part of it is too involved and obscure. The words 'speak alone' must be understood to mean, "are the only marks which bespeak." The dark side of the character is continued through another page: we extract the conclusion of it.

'He knew himself a villain — but he deem'd
The rest no better than the thing he seem'd;
And scorn'd the best as hypocrites who hid
Those deeds the bolder spirit plainly did.
He knew himself detested, but he knew
The hearts that loath'd him crouch'd and dreaded too.
Lone, wild, and strange, he stood alike exempt
From all affection and from all contempt:
His name could sadden, and his acts surprize;
But they that fear'd him dared not to despise:
Man spurns the worm, but pauses ere he wake
The slumbering venom of the folded snake.'

The picture is now changed, and Conrad's better passion is thus described:

'None are all evil — clinging round his heart,
One softer feeling would not yet depart;
Oft could he sneer at others as beguil'd
By passions worthy of a fool or child —
Yet 'gainst that passion vainly still he strove,
And even in him it asks the name of Love!
Yes, it was love — unchangeable — unchanged —
Felt but for one from whom he never ranged;

Though

Though fairest captives daily met his eye,
He shunn'd, nor sought, but coldly pass'd them by;
Though many a beauty droop'd in prison'd bower,
None ever sooth'd his most unguarded hour.
Yes—it was Love—if thoughts of tenderness,
Tried in temptation, strengthen'd by distress,
Unmoved by absence, firm in every clime,
And yet—Oh more than all!—untired by time—
Which nor defeated hope, nor baffled wile,
Could render sullen were she ne'er to smile,
Nor rage could fire, nor sickness fret to vent
On her one murmur of his discontent—
Which still would meet with joy, with calmness part,
Lest that his look of grief should reach her heart;
Which nought remov'd—nor menaced to remove—
If there be love in mortals—this was love!
He was a villain—aye—reproaches shower
On him—but not the passion, nor its power,
Which only proved, all other virtues gone,
Not guilt itself could quench this loveliest one!'

Throughout the parting scene, between Conrad and his beloved Medora, in the first canto, we have many tender passages; and the pictures of each of them immediately afterward, displaying the fearful and despairing agony of Medora, and the resolution of Conrad, hurried on lest it should fail, are most happily conceived and executed. The expression of his feeling, when from the sea

'—— His eyes beheld his rocky tower,
And lived a moment o'er the parting hour;
She—his Medora—did she mark the prow?
Ah! never loved he half so much as now,'

strikes at once to the heart, and reminds it of a sentiment often felt, but not often before expressed.

Canto II. opens with an animated description of a fleet of Turkish gallies, preparing 'in Coron's bay' for an expedition to the Pirates' Isle. Their purpose, however, is defeated by the arrival of Conrad to attack them; and the pirates, becoming the assailants, oblige them to commence the war on their own ground. Here Lord Byron has again given a lively delineation of a night-action:

'The wild confusion and the swarthy glow
Of flames on high and torches from below;'

with the firing of the fleet of the Turks, and the *intrusion* on their banquet:

'—— Now the pirates pass'd the Haram gate,
And burst within—and it were death to wait;

Where wild Amazement shrieking—kneeling—throws
The sword aside—in vain—the blood o'erflows!
The Corsairs pouring, haste to where within,
Invited Conrad's bugle, and the din
Of groaning victims, and wild cries for life,
Proclaim'd how well he did the work of strife.
They shout to find him grim and lonely there,
A glutted tyger mangling in his lair!
But short their greeting—shorter his reply—
"'Tis well—but Seyd escapes—and he must die.
Much hath been done—but more remains to do—
Their galleys blaze—why not their city too?"

'Quick at the word—they seized him each a torch,
And fire the dome from minaret to porch.
A stern delight was fix'd in Conrad's eye,
But sudden sunk—for on his ear the cry
Of women struck, and like a deadly knell
Knock'd at that heart unmov'd by battle's yell.
"Oh! burst the Haram—wrong not on your lives
One female form—remember—*we* have wives.
On them such outrage Vengeance will repay;
Man is our foe, and such 'tis ours to slay:
But still we spared—must spare the weaker prey.
Oh! I forgot—but Heaven will not forgive
If at my word the helpless cease to live;
Follow who will—I go—we yet have time
Our souls to lighten of at least a crime."
He climbs the crackling stair—he bursts the door,
Nor feels his feet glow scorching with the floor;
His breath choak'd gasping with the volumed smoke,
But still from room to room his way he broke:
They search—they find—they save: with lusty arms
Each bears a prize of unregarded charms;
Calm their loud fears; sustain their sinking frames
With all the care defenceless beauty claims:
So well could Conrad tame their fiercest mood,
And check the very hands with gore imbrued.'

Conrad, in course, carries off

'—— The love of him he dooms to bleed,
The Haram queen—but still the slave of Seyd.'

The Turks, however, rally; and, after a severe and obstinate resistance, all the pirates being destroyed or wounded, Conrad is made prisoner, confined in a lonely tower, and condemned to the torture as soon as the state of his wounds will allow him to bear it. The description of his feelings is another display of the author's acquaintance with the workings of the heart; and, though the subject is trite, it has seldom been depicted with so much force as in the following lines:

'There

'There is a war, a chaos of the mind,
When all its elements convuls'd—combined—
Lie dark and jarring with perturbed force,
And gnashing with impenitent Remorse;
That juggling fiend—who never spake before—
But cries, "I warn'd thee!" when the deed is o'er.
Vain voice! the spirit burning but unbent,
May writhe—rebel—the weak alone repent!
Even in that lonely hour when most it feels,
And to itself all—all that self reveals,
No single passion, and no ruling thought
That leaves the rest at once unseen, unsought,
But the wild prospect when the soul reviews—
All rushing through their thousand avenues—
Ambition's dreams expiring, love's regret,
Endanger'd glory, life itself beset;
The joy untasted, the contempt or hate
'Gainst those who fain would triumph in our fate;
The hopeless past—the hasting future driven
Too quickly on to guess if hell or heaven;
Deeds, thoughts, and words, perhaps remembered not
So keenly till that hour, but ne'er forgot;
Things light or lovely in their acted time,
But now to stern reflection each a crime;
The withering sense of evil unreveal'd,
Not cankering less because the more conceal'd—
All—in a word—from which all eyes must start,
That opening sepulchre—the naked heart
Bares with its buried woes, till Pride awake,
To snatch the mirror from the soul—and break.'

The representation of his sleep in the dungeon is apparently borrowed from the well known anecdote of the Duke of Argyle, so beautifully described by Mr. Fox.

From the opening of the third canto, we select a passage which will perhaps be deemed the most interesting in the poem. It is an address to Athens, and is entirely equal to those which refer to Greece in "*The Giaour*," and to the Plain of Troy in "*The Bride of Abydos*." In a note subjoined, Lord Byron informs us that these lines were written on the spot; and they possess all the life and vigour of a sketch from nature:

'Slow sinks, more lovely ere his race be run,
Along Morea's hills the setting sun;
Not as in northern climes obscurely bright,
But one unclouded blaze of living light!
O'er the hush'd deep the yellow beam he throws,
Gilds the green wave, that trembles as it glows.
On old Ægina's rock, and Idra's isle,
The god of gladness sheds his parting smile;

O'er his own regions lingering loves to shine,
Though there his altars are no more divine.
Descending fast the mountain shadows kiss
Thy glorious gulph, unconquer'd Salamis!
Their azure arches through the long expanse
More deeply purpled meet his mellowing glance,
And tenderest tints, along their summits driven,
Mark his gay course and own the hues of heaven;
Till, darkly shaded from the land and deep,
Behind his Delphian cliff he sinks to sleep.

'On such an eve his palest beam he cast,
When—Athens! here thy wisest look'd his last.
How watched thy better sons his farewell ray,
That closed their murder'd sage's latest day!
Not yet—not yet—Sol pauses on the hill—
The precious hour of parting lingers still!
But sad his light to agonizing eyes,
And dark the mountain's once delightful dyes:
Gloom o'er the lovely land he seem'd to pour,
The land, where Phœbus never frown'd before,
But ere he sunk below Cithæron's head,
The cup of woe was quaff'd—the spirit fled;
The soul of him who scorn'd to fear or fly—
Who liv'd and died, as none can live or die!

'But lo! from high Hymettus to the plain,
The queen of night asserts her silent reign.
No murky vapour, herald of the storm,
Hides her fair face, nor girds her glowing form;
With cornice glimmering as the moon-beams play,
There the white column greets her grateful ray,
And bright around with quivering beams beset
Her emblem sparkles o'er the minaret:
The groves of olive scattered dark and wide
Where meek Cephisus pours his scanty tide,
The cypress saddening by the sacred mosque,
The gleaming turret of the gay Kiosk,
And, dun and sombre 'mid the holy calm,
Near Theseus' fane yon solitary palm,
All tinged with varied hues arrest the eye—
And dull were his that pass'd them heedless by.

'Again the Ægean, heard no more afar,
Lulls his chaf'd breast from elemental war;
Again his waves in milder tints unfold
Their long array of sapphire and of gold,
Mixt with the shades of many a distant isle,
That frown—where gentler ocean seems to smile. *

'Not

* The opening lines as far as section ii. have, perhaps, little business here, and were annexed to an unpublished (though printed) poem;

'Not now my theme—why turn my thoughts to thee?
Oh! who can look along thy native sea,
Nor dwell upon thy name, whate'er the tale,
So much its magic must o'er all prevail?
Who that beheld that sun upon thee set,
Fair Athens! could thine evening face forget?
Not he—whose heart nor time nor distance frees,
Spell-bound within the clustering Cyclades!
Nor seems this homage foreign to his strain,
His Corsair's isle was once thine own domain—
Would that with freedom it were thine again!'

We should gladly extract several other portions of the same canto, but our limits will not admit more than one additional quotation, which we cannot forbear to transcribe: it is a part of the description of Conrad's feelings in his imprisonment:

'The fourth day roll'd along—and with the night
Came storm and darkness in their mingling might:
Oh! how he listened to the rushing deep,
That ne'er till now so broke upon his sleep;
And his wild spirit wilder wishes sent,
Roused by the roar of his own element!
Oft had he ridden on that winged wave,
And loved its roughness for the speed it gave;
And now its dashing echoed on his ear,
A long known voice—alas! too vainly near!
Loud sung the wind above—and, doubly loud,
Shook o'er his turret cell the thunder-cloud;
And flash'd the lightning by the latticed bar,
To him more genial than the midnight star:
Close to the glimmering grate he dragg'd his chain,
And hoped *that* peril might not prove in vain.
He raised his iron hand to Heaven, and prayed
One pitying flash to mar the form it made:
His steel and impious prayer attract alike—
The storm roll'd onward and disdain'd to strike;
Its peal waxed fainter—ceased—he felt alone,
As if some faithless friend had spurn'd his groan!'

If the last couplet were omitted, and the last line but three altered to obviate an objection which we shall presently point out, we should hardly know where to look for a passage surpassing this in sublime effect. It is in Dryden's very best manner.

We could willingly leave our readers to judge of the poem before us from the above citations: which would certainly

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poem; but they were written on the spot in the Spring of 1811, and—I scarce know why—the reader must excuse their appearance here if he can.'

warrant a very favourable judgment, and, although they are some of the best parts of the poem, are perfectly well supported by the remainder of it. Indeed, extracts of double their length and of equal beauty might be made. Our duty, however, requires that we should discriminate in bestowing so much praise; and we are the more induced to offer such remarks as occur to us, by the author's notice (already mentioned) that he does not mean to publish again for some years: during which interval, it cannot but be desirable that he should have before him all the observations which fair and rational criticism can suggest.

The praise of genius at once exalted and versatile, and rivalling if not excelling that of any living author, must surely be awarded to Lord Byron: but, in proportion as he is endowed with this most pre-eminent qualification of a poet, he is answerable for the use or the abuse of it, and is bound not to throw away on compositions of a lower class the talents which would give lustre to those of a higher. Now the writing of a tale can never be considered as a composition of the first rank, except when it is made to assume as much as may be possible of the epic character; and, to give that character, a certain order and procedure are indispensable:—there must be a beginning, a middle, and an end. We do not forget Horace's praise of the author who "*rapit in medias res:*" but that praise is perfectly consistent with our remark. Voltaire's expression, "*commencer par le commencement,*" is certainly applicable to prose only; yet still, when the recital of some main action *(media res)* has awakened the interest of the reader, he expects that interest to be justified and sustained by some knowlege of the previous characters and situations of the actors: he requires to know what brought them into their present circumstances, and what incites them to the action which he has contemplated. It is true that this information should be shortly conveyed: but it must not be wholly omitted.—In the same manner, when the principal action is over, we expect to know something of the fate of all the personages who have excited our interest. This, too, may be accomplished with brevity, and should not be protracted. Without attention to these points, a poem is but a fragment; and, however great may be the skill displayed in its composition, it is still an imperfect work. A great artist in the sister-profession would scarcely venture to offer to the public a fragment of a picture, displaying merely the human form or a group of figures, however interesting, without the fore-ground and the back-ground; nor would he rely solely on the expression of a countenance, without giving it support in those minutiæ of figure and manner which

which are essentially necessary to constitute a perfect portrait. He may indeed commit those details to the execution of pupils, or inferior hands: but executed they must be, and a picture, to rank in the first class, must be complete in itself. — In the work now under consideration, we have wished for some account of the life or circumstances of the Corsair previous to the opening of the poem; and of the origin of Gulnare's connection with Seyd, which seems to have been marked by features rather out of the usual course of purchased beauties for the seraglio. We also felt disappointed at not hearing what finally became of this person after she had quitted the Haram with Conrad. Without this previous and subsequent information, it is not possible to shew with full effect the working of the passions in the important parts of the poem. "The Bride of Abydos" was preferable to 'The Corsair' in this point of view.

It is moreover necessary, whatever may be an author's power of expression, that the work of revision and correction should be carefully performed. Besides using too profusely the undistinguishing *dash* instead of definite punctuation, Lord Byron protracts his sentences to too great a length, which in a written production we consider to be a material defect; and which, even in rhetoric, is calculated rather to shew the art and labour of the speaker than to touch the minds of the audience: though the occasional mixture of long and short sentences is unquestionably necessary to a good composition. In poetry, however, a period can seldom be well protracted beyond eight or ten lines.

We also think that Lord Byron is rather too fond of a dramatic mode of writing: — what the French call "*coupée.*" As the quality on which we have just been observing gives the poem an air of declamation, so this produces a sort of stage-effect: both of which are foreign to the real epic or narrative style.

The point, however, on which we think that the noble author is most censurable, is his fondness for alliterative expressions; of which we need not quote any instances, since it is unfortunately observable in almost every page of the poem. Sometimes, indeed, (such is the effect of habit,) it occurs where the writer must have been unconscious of it, and would have assuredly rejected it if the effect had caught his ear. The 90th line of the first canto is a striking example. In the passage which forms the last of our quotations, the line 'His steel and impious pray'r *attract* alike' is blamable for the double sense of the word 'attract.' We also object to such expressions as 'pleasure cannot please;'— 'feeling seem'd almost unfelt.' We are aware that many of our older writers, and even Shakspeare at the head of the list, might be cited

in justification of the practices which we are censuring as faults: but it is scarcely to be denied that they are the blemishes of those writers, and are always quoted as examples that in their days genius prevailed over taste. To unite such qualities should be the constant aim of all who would now be distinguished. To copy the beauties of preceding authors is only to borrow: but to rival their excellences and to avoid their defects would be both great and *original* merit.

In making these remarks, we feel that we are offering Lord Byron praise more acceptable than the highest panegyric. In fact, the trifling faults which we have pointed out are, we verily believe, the most serious that could be attributed to the poem now before us, or to its immediate predecessors. The moral effect of these compositions (notwithstanding occasional passages of gloom) is good, as they shew — that of which it is most important to be aware, — the baleful effect of evil passions and evil actions on the destiny and conduct of human life. They display powerful genius, and (on the whole) a poetry at once dignified and tender, nervous and highly polished. They will, therefore, doubtless, be placed by the side of the first of our bards; and a little more care, a little more chastening, would intitle them to that envied station without a dissentient voice.

ART. XII. *A Picture of Society*, or the Misanthropist. 12mo. pp. 202. 5s. 6d. Boards. Hookhams. 1813.

No good reason can easily be given for calling this work *The Misanthropist*. One of the best moral effusions which it contains is employed in recommending candour: the general flow of sentiment announces neither the shunner of men nor the censor of society; and its tone is rather that of passive than of vindictive disappointment. Our British essayists, however, are become so numerous, that perhaps propriety must be sacrificed to novelty of title; and we reviewers must not call out with Macbeth,

> "What, will the line stretch out to th' crack of doom?
> Another yet, a seventh, — *I'll see no more.*"

See and *hear* we must; and, provided that the lesson be good, we ought to be indifferent as to the name of the teacher.

Were a young man of letters to purchase Blair's Sermons, or a similar popular book of precept; and, taking an old pack of cards, were to write, on the back of each, some one of the little elegant *tirades* with which such preachers abound; he would

would have collected a set of common-places respecting morality, too short to fatigue, too sound to be controverted, too elegant to be despised, too good to be lost, and too neat to be criticized unkindly. If he were then to shuffle his pack of cards afresh, and send it to the printer, the result would be such a book as this. It is divided, indeed, into rather long chapters: but each chapter often contains a handful of half-a-dozen separate topics, unaccountably disconnected. On each subject, something pretty is prettily said; yet nothing is exhausted, and no sufficient preparation is usually made for the desultory variations of matter. The reader is surprized that he who speaks so a point so well should have no more to say; and that he who observes so delicately should so soon be tired of looking. His thoughts have more vigor than drift, and his style more life than variety: so the grass-hopper skips afar though unconscious of her path, and chirps amain though her uniformity fatigues.

The sort of writing in which this author appears to us most adapted to excel is character-drawing. We should advise him to take down his Theophrastus, his Bruyère, his Bishop Hall; and, having duly studied these classical models, to complete a set of modern portraits, generalized into ideal representations of an entire class of men. A good specimen or two may be found in the sixth chapter:

'I now sought a friend to whom I could fully unburthen my heart, who would neither reason nor ridicule, but who would sympathize in sorrows that no reason could remove. Towards one man I was imperceptibly drawn by the attractive charms of his conversation. His wit was more cheerful than dazzling. He employed learning but as one of the many means of pleasing; and while he instructed the mind, he seemed anxious only to amuse. His conversation was a delightful rest to the soul; and he secured approbation by not appearing to exact it. Pity seemed the ruling passion of his mind; at least tears and eloquence were lavished on the darling theme, and charity caught new graces adorned by his language. But it was the eloquence of genius, not of feeling. His eye glistened at a tale of sorrow, when that tear was likely to be consecrated by the applause of the world. His was the stage-box sensibility, that with ostentatious tenderness lavishes tears upon fictitious distress, while the pining children of poverty are regarded with philosophic composure,—that mechanism of feeling which vibrates only to the passing gale of popularity.

'I soon lost all pleasure in the society of a man who was most deceitful when most he charmed, and attached myself to a character apparently so congenial to my own, that I thought no time could lessen the avidity with which I sought his conversation. He, like me, felt disgust to society; but, like me, he had never tasted its sweetest joys, had never revelled in the golden dreams of hope, nor known that blessed moment when the silent eloquence of a glance bids every hope be realized.

'But

'But I soon learned to distinguish between the gloomy discontent of constitutional misanthropy and the fastidiousness of a too susceptible and disappointed heart. In his youth he had gained some celebrity by his argumentative talents: logic was his favourite study, controversy his only recreation; and he entered society without any object or desire but to engage in disputation. Imposing and sophistical, he puzzled many whom he failed to convince, and politeness taught others to relinquish an unimportant discussion. Thus, elated by imaginary successes, from being ingenious he soon became dogmatical, and conceived every opposition to his opinion was an insult to his understanding.

'A sophistical man, who first supports an opinion merely to display his ingenuity, is apt to argue himself into conviction of its truth. He soon began to advance extravagant paradoxes, and propagate the most dangerous sentiments, until, at length, his principles became as odious as his manners were tiresome. Finding himself, therefore, shunned, he resolved to make a voluntary retreat, and passed his days in sullen and gloomy hatred. He could tolerate the follies which gave him an opportunity of displaying his eloquence, but could not forgive the blind and indiscriminating stupidity that called his lofty declamations bombast, and his elegant fastidiousness pride and malevolence. Hatred seemed the natural complection of his mind; a look, a word, created the most horrid suspicion. Suspicion was soon magnified into certainty; he triumphed in the discovery, cherished the growing aversion, and never forgave the person who undeceived him. In short, to find pretexts to be miserable was the only use he made of reason. He could forgive those who injured him, but never forgave those whom he injured. He was capable of performing a generous action, but the object of his bounty was ever after the victim of a barbarous tyranny. His maxims were, never to trust, and he could not be deceived; never to love, and he could not be disappointed; and he believed himself wise, when only suspicious. But was he happy in his security? Oh, no! the canker of discontent preyed upon his heart; he was dreaded by the cheerful, despised by the wise, and avoided by those who had real sorrows to lament.

'Augustus saw how dangerous such a companion must prove to a mind already so oppressed as mine, and he endeavoured to accomplish, by general reflections and oblique insinuation, what he dreaded to attempt by open expostulation; well knowing that the pride of man is for ever at war with his reason and interest. He described, with all the eloquence of feeling, how injurious to the interests of society is the indulgence of misanthropy; what misery a discontented mind draws upon itself, and all those within its power; like the fabled Upas tree, breathing pestilential vapours, and with poisonous influence expelling utility and joy from its fatal atmosphere.

'"When some sentimental caprice is disappointed," continued he, "gloom instantly seizes on the mind: we despise the pleasures and comforts within our reach, and distorting the most promising appearances into melancholy augurs, sullenly resign ouselves to hopeless despondency. We never consider how much more misery is below, than happiness above us; how many pine in want and agony, or suffer the

the more horrible pangs of a guilty conscience. Alas! millions of human beings consider a mere exemption from want and pain as the height of human felicity; while those blessed with health, independence, innocence, and friends, close their eyes on conviction, and dream of imaginary sorrows. We complain of the small portion of happiness we enjoy; we accuse our fellow-creatures and the state of society, forgetting that happiness is a sacred relic committed to the sanctuary of our own hearts. Who is to blame if that sanctuary is profaned by every ignoble passion? if pride, envy, ambition, revenge, steal the bright image of heaven? Happiness, how fleeting! like time, unmarked but by its flight, and prized only when it cannot be recalled; the present moment for ever neglected, while a future, which beckons with delusive smiles, yet ever flies our grasp, employs all our thoughts. When we look back on past pleasures, and, dressing them in imaginary charms, sigh the useless wish, "Oh, that those days of bliss would return!" let us ask ourselves, was that time more prized when present, than this moment of useless regret; and may not this neglected moment be the regretted past of a future day?"

'Alas! how much easier is it to convince the understanding than to reform the heart! Memory still conjures up visions of departed joys, and argument affects not the blighted feelings of disappointed hope. Ye, who never knew the sweet dream of life; who never hung enamoured on accents that gave back the image of your own soul, softened and refined; who view the rising sun but as the cause of light and heat, not as the harbinger of returning bliss; it is for you to argue, but for me to feel!'

If one set of delineations abounds more than another in these pages, the favourite views seem to be those of a country-clergyman's situation and residence; and if we were allowed to infer the real history of the author from intimations thrown out by the imaginary misanthropist, we might suppose him to have been a young priest, labouring under the temporary melancholy of a widower *, who had been visiting London to recruit his spirits, and there left with his bookseller these detached beauties of his sermons. We recommend them to the perusal, to the interest, and to the curiosity, of all single ladies: they are well adapted for the parlour-table, and may be read aloud in female circles with grace and satisfaction. Such fair readers should be made acquainted with the taste of their guest, or client:

'I expected some pleasure at the house of Mr. D———, a gentleman of large fortune, with three beautiful daughters, of whose elegance and accomplishments fame spoke very loudly. They were celebrated musicians, and to me, who am an idolator of that charming art, no other attraction was necessary. Music is no solitary acquire-

* If the passage in the preceding extract, at the bottom of p. 201., be not contradictory to this supposition.

ment,

ment, which, proudly all-sufficient to itself, renders the possessor careless and incapable of pleasing.

'These young ladies, returning home with all the ignorance and affectation of a boarding-school, are considered prodigies of musical talent, because they can with unblushing effrontery and unfeeling rapidity gabble over an Italian bravura, closing their eyes, shrugging their shoulders, and employing the appoggiatura till it degenerates into a groan. Sweet powers of harmony, how are you insulted! The Miss D— — s sung and simpered, played the tambourine, and put themselves into the most graceful attitudes; exhibited a thousand pretty childish airs, all those

> "Quips and quirks, and wanton wiles,
> Nods and becks, and wreathed smiles,"

so easily acquired from a fashionable governess, or copied from a second-rate actress.

'The tedious display of accomplishments over, I endeavoured to discover the yet hidden treasure of mind. I first introduced common topics, that I should not alarm them by too exalted an opinion of my wisdom, and check that natural flow of thought which is woman's sweetest charm. On the subjects of balls, dress, and scandal, they were loquacious and animated; but their animation was without any play of fancy: they had all the surface of refinement, but wanted that inherent elegance which charms by unstudied graces, and diffuses through the manners a calm, collected, winning ease. Their conversation was made up of the cant of science and the jargon of romance, and I soon found that the range of their literary pursuits was confined to those fictions which soften without instructing the heart, those works of imagination which, like the prismatic glass, shew objects glowing with false but brilliant colours: and that to their dazzled eyes the sober page of reason was never unfolded.

'Though I do not agree with those sage moralists, who have endeavoured to prove all novel-reading destructive and all novel-writers contemptible, I believe that, were a fair estimate made of the comparative good and evil which novels have done to society, we should find the evil predominate. They create a distaste for the sober pleasures of life; they describe love and hatred in such extravagant terms, that the temperate feelings of nature appear insipid; they display such models of impracticable perfectibility, that we turn in despair from the imitation; and they paint vicious characters in such alluring colours, that we forget their errors in contemplation of their brilliant and engaging qualities. To support the consistency of characters, they are made to utter the most dangerous sentiments. The author does not perhaps wish to inculcate those sentiments, but a long train of events and arguments are not always able to do away the impression of one false but ingenious maxim, as few minds are capable of following or comprehending the laboured combinations of little results with which the author fancies he overthrows it. Thus the sentiment, which probably was introduced only to be confuted, will be engraven on the memory to create bad actions or to excuse them.

'A mind that has long followed fiction through her flowery mazes is little inclined to pursue the plain unadorned path of reason. Thus

the understanding lies dormant, while imagination roves uncontrolled, and the genuine sympathies of nature, the best feelings of the heart, are exhausted on fictitious woes. Thanks to the taste and genius of the present day, every circulating-library supplies elopements, catastrophes, mystery, and distraction, distressed damsels and invincible heroes, in such abundance, that terror has ceased to tremble, and wonder has ceased to stare. The softest hearts have expended their stock of sympathy, and the most weeping eyes can no longer produce one tear even for domestic calamities. Every boarding-school miss has learned to act the heroine, to create adventures, and then weep at them; to unbind her golden tresses, fix her eyes upon the moon, and sigh forth her sorrows in tripping Madrigals. Intricate incident, astonishing discoveries, hopeless misery, and felicity more perfect than that of angels; sulky heroines, who are perfect in the arts of blushing, scolding, and looking disdainful; sophistical heroes, who sentimentally break the Ten Commandments, and then sanctify every immorality by proving themselves men of their word; sighs, blushes, thrilling sensibility and uncontrollable emotions, with a little pert dialogue interlarded with French phrases, constitute the whole art of modern story-telling.'

Wishing to the author every possible perfection in his Julia, (who, in the end, seems to recall him to life and love,) we deem it expedient to observe that too much *fastidiousness* is not favourable to human felicity; that in every character we may detect some imperfection of temper, and some deficiency of acquirement; that external advantages are denied at times by nature and at times by fortune; and that a critic of mankind, after every epithet of panegyric, can apply a *but* of deduction. The doctrine of universal compensation, which assumes that every fault is counterbalanced by some latent merit, is the most favourable to candid appreciation; and to the reciprocal tolerance and accommodation which best become those who are matched to draw together in the car of life.

ART. XIII. *The British Constitution, analyzed by a Reference to the earliest Periods of History:* in which is detailed *Magna Carta*, with Illustrations by the most eminent legal Characters, &c. &c. Compiled by a Doctor of Laws. 2 Vols. 12mo. pp. 864. 16s. Boards. Chapple.

THIS Doctor of Laws is an ardent eulogist of the British constitution, and reminds us, by his panegyrics, of the enraptured foreigner who, on hearing the subject broached in conversation, was accustomed to exclaim, "*Elle est belle,—elle est superbe.*" Whoever the author (or rather compiler) may be, he takes great pains to assert a character of impartiality, and to disclaim equally the design 'of courting the smiles of the great, or of putting a mischievous instrument into the hands of party. His

His sole wish is to submit to his readers a compendium of our constitution, and to inform those for ages yet to come of the vast privileges they are born to enjoy.' This high-sounding introduction affords rather an amusing contrast to the plain nature of the work; which is neither more nor less than an abstract of our fundamental statutes, with brief explanations of the circumstances attending their enactment, and comments explanatory of the latitude given to doubtful points by the decisions of our courts of justice. From the manner of the composition, we cannot always clearly determine what part is borrowed from other books and what proceeds from the pen of this anonymous 'Doctor of Laws:' but, if he will permit us to give him a hint, he will be careful to disclaim the chief of that matter which bears the semblance of being original, because it is in fact the weak side of the book. We have, indeed, seldom met with remarks more feeble and common-place than those which are given in the editor's person. The work is an useful compilation, and no higher title should be claimed for it.

The Act of Settlement is liable, from its title, to be considered in too confined a sense, and to be regarded as merely fixing the succession to the crown. That this was its *main object* is clear both from the circumstances of the time and from the first four provisions; which, without naming the House of Hanover, bear a direct reference to its particular situation: but this act contained, moreover, several regulations regarding national policy, viz.—That matters relating to the government of the kingdom shall be transacted in the Privy Council, and all resolutions taken thereon shall be signed by such of the Privy Council as shall advise and consent to the same:—That no foreigner shall be of the Privy Council, or a member of either house of parliament, or in the enjoyment of a place of trust, civil, or military:—That Judges shall hold their commissions, not during pleasure, but *quamdiu se bene gesserint*, or until both houses of parliament present an address to the crown for their removal.

Magna Carta is given in these volumes with all due solemnity in an English translation, and is made to extend, by the aid of copious illustrations from Chief Justice Coke and others, over more than seventy pages. It is followed by the less known *Carta de Foresta*, a charter confirmed, like *Magna Carta*, in the early part of the long reign of Henry III., and limiting the power of the crown respecting the much-abused prerogative of turning the open country into forests. The Law of Appeals, the Habeas-Corpus-Act, the Bill of Rights, the Privileges of the City of London, and the Acts of Union with Scotland and Ireland respectively, are all stated in the first volume. In

the second, we have a summary of the royal prerogatives, and of the privileges of Parliament; accompanied by details of several of the great discussions on the subject of legislative pretensions, during the seventeenth and part of the eighteenth centuries. With these the book concludes. — Instead of travelling over this thorny tract, we shall endeavour to amuse our readers with the peculiarities of one of the gracious sovereigns of our ancestors, James I., called very appropriately by Henry IV. of France, *Maitre Jaques*. James was accustomed to contemplate himself as the sole director of national affairs, and to consider the interference of the House of Commons as not only impertinent but useless.

'It was in such a humour as this that he dictated one of his letters from his hunting seat near Royston, to his council, wherein he desires them to relieve him from the fatigues of business, in which is the following curious piece of pedantic arrogance: — "Hunting is necessary for my health; upon my health depends the health of the nation; and therefore it is necessary for the nation's health, that I should hunt." In answer to complaints of grievances, by the House of Commons, he told them from the throne — "That though they were parliament-men, they were likewise subjects; and that if they soared too nigh the beams of royal authority, the wax of their wings might melt, and occasion their downfall." At another time he reminded them — "That the King was a speaking law," and charged them "not to meddle with the main points of government, for in them his main craft consisted;" adding, "that it was like a pedant teaching Hannibal the art of war, for them to teach the art of politics to him, who had served his apprenticeship in the mystery thirty years in Scotland and seven in England."'—

'One fact more as a climax of tyranny and absurdity: By a proclamation dated December 24. 1620, "the subjects are strictly commanded, every of them, from the highest to the lowest, to take heed how they intermeddle by pen or speech, with causes of state and secrets of empire, either at home or abroad."

'Such a mandatory injunction and arbitrary edict roused the country; and the House of Commons thought it became them to protest — "That the liberties, franchises, privileges, and jurisdictions of parliament, were the ancient and undoubted birth-right and inheritance of the subjects of England; and that the arduous and urgent affairs concerning the King's state and defence of the realm, and of the church of England, and the maintenance and the making of laws, and redress of mischiefs and grievances which daily happen within this realm, are proper subjects and matter of council and debate in parliament."

'This so enraged James, that he ordered the journal of the House of Commons to be brought to him, and, as appears by the council-book, dated the 30th of December, "*manu sua propria* — with his own proper hand, he tore the protestation out of the book of journals."'

MONTHLY

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POETRY.

Art. 14. *Royalty Fog-bound:* or, The Perils of a Night, and the Frolics of a Fortnight. A Poem. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. 1814.

If this be our old friend Peter, which we much doubt, he has not only chosen a foggy subject, but his genius, like the sun at the winter solstice, exhibits to us the fog without being able to dissipate it, and to shew us a bright horizon of wit. In character with an old man, he is minutely narrative in detailing a recent visit of the Prince to Belvoir-castle; and he strives, as in his younger days, to enliven it with the ridicule of royalty. A hundred and fifty doggerel stanzas are devoted to a description of the fog-bound, mud-stained Regent, and of the drunken carousals at the Duke of Rutland's castle: but Peter's muse proceeds as in a fog, and helps out his verse with many a *d—me*. This choice sample figures in the title-page:

'The P—— with sore vexation sigh'd ——
"O d—m the fog!" his H——ss cried,
"Must all my pleasures be defeated,
And I be like a subject treated?
Open the door and let me out,
And d—me, turn the coach about;
Old E——, that surly dog,
And G——w, shall indict the fog."'

Art. 15. *Poems.* By Miss Prescott. 8vo. pp. 84. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1812.

These Poems, on various subjects, are in various measures, and display various merit. To delineate characters, and to elicit moral and sentimental reflections, appear to form the favourite occupation of Miss Prescott's muse: but in the latter attempt she is more successful than in the former. Without adequate experience and knowlege of the world, this lady indiscreetly ventures on sketching the shades of human character. Her *Bachelor*, *Old Maid*, and *Coquette*, are meant to be playfully satirical; and some of our corps, who are bachelors, assert that she has sketched the "single blessedness" of males better than that which sometimes falls to the lot of her own sex. Of the Bachelor, she says,

'He warms his night-cap, smokes his pipe,
Alone he drains his jug;
And thinks no bee in foxglove lives
A life so calm and snug.'

Some of the amusements of the Old Maid are thus hobblingly described:

'To-day reads such newspapers as she can borrow,
And sends for a friend's magazine for to-morrow.

Their

Their blanks and initials must mean so and so,
If they do not mean these, she's distress'd to tell who.'

Miss P. represents *Amanda*, the Coquette, as

'At fashion's splendid *card-boards* found,
Conquering or reparteeing all around;'

and, speaking of her toilet, she says,

'Olympian dew is on the wash-stand seen,
Terrestrial are elements too mean.'

Card-boards may be a provincial term for card-tables; and, from this and other parts of her poems, we infer that Miss P. cannot have seen much of the *fine* London world, as it is called. When her muse is in the serious strain, she is often very impressive. We copy two good stanzas from a short poem on Death:

'Nor the mute shell-fish, nor expressive man,
Shall 'scape his hand, he deals insatiate rage;
He lords it o'er the young enthusiast's plan,
And ends the tale of "garrulous old age."'

'Our lamp he darkens, bids our sense be still,
Each fine-adjusted spring of feeling stops;
Stifles opinion, reason, taste, and will;
And o'er life's picture one sad curtain drops.'

When the author, in a preceding poem,

'Wraps the *gelid manes* in a shroud,'

she does what was never attempted before; and '*tarnished* gold,' (p. 27) strictly speaking, is not to be found: but good thoughts are often sadly tarnished by bad lines and bad rhymes.

Art. 16. *Forbury Hill*; a Poem. Inscribed to the Memory of the late Francis Annesley, Esq. Crown 8vo. pp. 34. Rivingtons, 1813.

Why must every poem that is written be published; and why will not a versifier, who amuses himself with describing a spot in the vicinity of Reading, be satisfied with the praise of *Reading readers*? The late Francis Annesley, Esq. for many years represented the borough of Reading in parliament; and, as the heir at law of Sir Jacob Downing, he was appointed Master of Downing College, and obtained from the University of Cambridge the honorary degree of LL.D. His virtues intitled him (as we well know) to all the eulogy with which this writer in verse and in prose embalms his memory; and it will be fortunate for the poet if, like a fly in amber, he shall be so embedded in his subject as to be inseparable in fame: but, if we have any discernment, such lines as these will not help to eternize the memory either of Mr. Annesley or of his panegyrist. Having described the care with which *Forbury Hill* was kept up by Mr. A., and its present neglected state, the poet proceeds:

'Why does the thought my pen arrest,
Why dim my eye, why heave my breast?

Why, fancy, with averted face,
To sad reality give place?
Ah, 'tis a tribute justly due,
To him who serv'd us long and true:
Yes, Annesley, on this verdant mound,
By thee preserv'd and fenc'd around,
Here should thy monument be found:
Here should an obelisk arise,
Thy memory to eternize;
The spot by thee preserv'd from fate,
To thee should be *as consecrate*.'

We shall not descend to any of the *minutiæ* of criticism. By this specimen, the reader may judge of the whole.

Art. 17. *Chit Chat*, or the Pump Room at Bath in 1813. In Verse. 8vo. pp. 32. Rayner.

Even "names expressed in initials" have not enabled us to "smoke a jest," in this performance. It appears to contain personalities of which the sting is sheathed only by the general insipidity of the composition.

Art. 18. *The Mother's Fables*, in Verse. Designed, through the Medium of Amusement, to convey to the Minds of Children some useful Precepts of Virtue and Benevolence. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Boards. Darton and Co. 1812.

We approve this writer's plan of 'preceding every fable by a childish anecdote which illustrates the moral,' and can recommend the little volume as offering an agreeable variety of subjects. 'The Frog's Song,' page 33., is original; and Æsop's 'Fable of "The Gnat and the Bull" is versified with considerable pleasantry. We doubt, however, whether cuckoos and tom-tits are to be found in the native groves of the *mocking-bird*, although placed there by the author of these ingenious little pieces: see page 3.

Art. 19. *The Nursery Companion;* or, Rules of English Grammar, in Verse. By a Lady. Pocket 4to. pp. 23. Crosby. 1813.

These lines have perhaps as much melody as the subject would admit; and the composition is lively and ingenious. The work may therefore be useful, if the attraction of rhyme be found to recommend the dry study of grammar, and to atone for the additional intricacy which it here receives from the unavoidable transpositions occuring in verse.

Art. 20. *The Mourning Wreath;* an Elegiac Tribute to the Memory of the late Right Hon. Spencer Perceval, First Lord of the Treasury, Chancellor of the Exchequer, &c. &c. &c. By the Author of the Battles of the Danube and Barrosa. (John Gwilliam.) 4to. pp. 27. Jennings. 1813.

If this writer be tardy in offering his elegiac tribute, time has certainly not cooled his zeal; for it is impossible that any poet should be more enthusiastic in his admiration of the talents and virtues of the late Chancellor of the Exchequer. He has composed some elegant stanzas to that gentleman's memory: but, in his prose-dedication

tion and preface, he has carried his praise beyond the utmost eulogy of the Muse. He speaks of 'the *resplendent* abilities of the late *illustrious* Chancellor of the Exchequer, which have added so much *glory* to our country;' of 'the brilliancy of his career;' and holds him up 'as a statesman, perhaps, the most conspicuous that ever had the honour of maintaining the glory and prosperity of Great Britain.' Mr. Perceval's talents were respectable, and his virtues, as a man, rendered him truly amiable: but what were the acts of his public life which intitled him to rank as the first statesman that his country ever produced?—In the poem, the eulogist is more moderate; and the stanzas have an easy flow which will make them be read with pleasure: but they exhibit too great a monotony of common-place sentiment; and neither in the Wreath nor in the Inscription is the name of *Perceval* introduced; so that, if the title were detached from the poem, it would be difficult to ascertain the object of the Muse's lamentations. In the Inscription, this omission is unpardonable.—One stanza must suffice as a specimen:

'His was the daring, the intrepid soul,
By honor prompted, and by freedom fir'd,
Beyond the reach of party's rash controul,
By other views than selfishness inspir'd:
His were those manners, even his foes admir'd,
That spoke a liberal and enlighten'd mind;
His tongue no winding sophistry requir'd,
His heart upright, intelligent, refin'd,
A pattern to direct, and meliorate mankind.'

For our account of "The Battles of the Danube and Barrosa," see M R. Vol. lxvi. N. S. p. 321.; and the author's subsequent production, intitled *The Campaign*, is noticed in our last Number.

NOVELS.

Art. 21. *Histoire du Prince de Timor; &c. i. e.* The History of the Prince of Timor; containing an Account of his Travels in different Parts of the World, and particularly in France, after he had been deserted and betrayed by his Governor in the Port of Lorient. By M. D. B. 4 Vols. 12mo. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 18s.

Our readers will not be propitiated towards this work by the slanders which it conveys against the English nation; as when it accuses us (Vol. i. p. 190.) of 'fighting dishonourably,' and (p. 214.) of 'ill treating prisoners of war,' &c. &c. Independently, however, of this circumstance, we think that the adventures of Prince Balthazar are generally dull and improbable; the intrigues of a profligate monk are detailed with offensive freedom; and a great part of the book is filled with the skirmishes and negotiations of native princes in Madagascar, whose fictitious commotions may be compared to "a storm in a tea-pot," if we imitate a simile from Lord Chancellor Thurlow.

Art. 22. *Mademoiselle de la Fayette;* ou le Siècle de Louis XIII. Par Madame DE GENLIS. 12mo. 2 Vols. Paris; and London, Colburn. Price 12s. 1813.

This book is written in Madame de Genlis' usually natural and graceful style; and it acquires plausibility not only from the historical ground-work, but from the fair author's skill in developing the motives which are supposed to actuate her personages, and in imitating the events of real life, while she displays their remote consequences.

We cannot, however, applaud her choice of the present subject; because the weak and suspicious temper of Louis the Thirteenth excites a contempt which is almost reflected on the woman who admires him; and the episodes, which diversify the principal story, exhibit characters who forfeit our sympathy by unnatural generosity, leading them to sacrifice their best friends for unworthy objects or needless scruples.

Madame de Genlis also hazards paradoxical assertions; as when, in the preface, she pronounces 'those instances of devotion to the sovereign, which the French nation displayed during the reign of Louis XIIIth, to have been more honourable to her country because that monarch could inspire neither affection nor admiration;' — and in Vol. i. p. 211. Madame de Beaumont is made to declare that 'the vassalage of the French peasantry, as it then existed, increased their virtues; and that its abolition would necessarily render them insolent and ungrateful.'

In fine, we think that this work may interest on the first perusal, but that it will leave little impression on the memory, and will probably never be read a second time.

Art. 23. *The Ordeal.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 18s. Boards. Gale, Curtis, and Fenner. 1813.

Some striking instances of virtue, fortitude, and self-denial occur in this tale: but the dialogue is strained; and the author, being a disciple of the weeping philosopher, has on the whole formed a gloomy picture, in which submission is substituted for content, and by which the gay will scarcely be softened or the afflicted consoled: while those readers, who dislike melancholy representations, may perhaps consider the perusal of the work as an *ordeal* for the trial of their patience. Were they, however, to *pass through* it, they might come forth the purer.

EDUCATION.

Art. 24. *The Decoy;* or an agreeable Method of teaching Children the Elementary Parts of English Grammar by Conversations and familiar Examples. Small 12mo. 1s. Darton and Co. 1813.

We may recommend this little book as an useful present to the nursery; the dialogues being simple and amusing, and explaining clearly the nature of the different parts of speech.

Art. 25. *Maternal Sollicitude for a Daughter's best Interests.* By Mrs. Taylor, of Ongar. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Taylor and Hessey. 1814.

The subjects of these essays are well chosen, and ingeniously diversified; and the fair writer displays a degree of piety, with a knowlege and application of the Scriptures, which increases the value

value of her work. Yet the comparison, in page 111., may be deemed rather strained between Solomon's knowlege of trees and plants, and a young lady's improvement of days and moments; and in page 155. a trifling mistake occurs in a passage beginning thus: — 'The being who *ushers* forth from under the paternal roof.' It was probably intended to have been, "The being who *rushes* forth," &c.

Art. 26. *French Phraseology*. 2d Edition. 12mo. Law. 1814.

Though an accurate knowlege of the peculiarities of any language is best obtained by reading and conversation, yet, as the present collection of French idioms is compendious and methodical, it will be useful for occasional reference. The corresponding French and English expressions are accurately discriminated, excepting the very few instances which we must notice as erroneous.

In page 10. "*Ecrire au courant de la plume*" is rendered thus: "To write *currente calamo*," which Latin phrase should have been "translated for the country gentlemen," or rather it ought not to have been inserted in this book of elementary instruction. Page 21. '*un maitre ès arts*' is probably misprinted for *des arts;* as in page 94. '*amiable*' is twice put for the French '*aimable*.' The expression in page 83., '*Elle n'a point de naturel*,' may be said to mean, *She has no simplicity*, rather than 'she has no natural affection,' as it is here explained; and in page 99. '*La contention d'esprit*' is obscurely translated by 'great application or exertion of mind.'

POLITICS.

Art. 27. *An Appeal to the Allies and the English Nation, in Behalf of Poland*. 8vo. pp. 66. Harding. 1814.

On the avowed principle of the allies, viz. that the several states of Europe shall revert to their independence, an appeal may be fairly made to them in behalf of Poland: but it is to be feared that those of the allied sovereigns, who were actors in the Partition-Treaty, and threw such large slices of dismembered Poland into their own stores, will not be disposed to weigh the case of this antient kingdom in the scales of impartial justice. The present appellant, however, flatters himself with the hope that the noble-spirited Poles will be restored to their liberties, and that the partition of their country is about to become a matter of history. He endeavours to persuade Russia, Austria, and Prussia, that the restoration of the throne of Poland will operate as an advantage to each; yet still he seems to fear lest 'the liberation of the continent should turn out, after all, to mean no more in the Russian Dictionary than a new slice of Poland.' It is asked why England, who has manifested herself the champion of Spain and of Holland, will not interpose her good offices in favour of the Poles: but this question, politically viewed, admits of an easy solution: — our own security is implicated in the independence of Spain and Holland, but not in that of Poland. While, therefore, we applaud the benevolence of this attempt in behalf of a much injured and suffering people, and wish as much as the writer can do that Poland, with a population of 16 or 17 millions, should rear her head in Europe as an independent kingdom, we must honestly confess

that we see no ground for believing that the object of this appeal will be realized.

TRAVELS.

Art. 28. *Journal of a Tour in Iceland*, in the Summer of 1809. By William Jackson Hooker, F.L.S., and Fellow of the Wernerian Society of Edinburgh. Second Edition, with Additions. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 6s. (Royal 8vo. 1l. 16s.) Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

Of the first edition of Mr. Hooker's pleasing and interesting narrative, we spoke at some length, in our lxviith Vol. p. 337. Although the corrections and additions in this impression are neither very numerous nor very important, yet the work is certainly improved in its present enlarged form. With regard to the maps, in particular, 'Mr. Arrowsmith has, with great care and assiduity, collected information from the best authorities, in order to render them the most correct of any that have yet appeared; and he has not only made ample use of the volumes of M. Verdun, but also of manuscript-maps and charts which have been constructed by Danish officers, who have been employed in Iceland at the expence of his Danish Majesty.'

Appendix C, besides other matters relative to Hecla and the volcanos of Iceland, contains a translation of Stephenson's account of the great and disastrous eruption which visited the district of Skaptefield, in 1783:—a document which, though somewhat prolix, bears all the internal marks of fidelity, and may consequently be of service in counteracting the incorrect and exaggerated statements of Holme, who published a book on the same eventful subject.

An engraved sketch of the crater of Glyser, when empty, has been added to the plates; and the paper and press-work are suited to the more intrinsic merits of the publication.

HORTICULTURE.

Art. 29. *An improved System of Nursery-Gardening*, for propagating Forest and Hardy ornamental Evergreen and Deciduous Trees and Shrubs of general Description, by Seeds of British Produce, uniformly ripening in favourable Seasons: which may be found, more or less, in every County throughout Great Britain. Containing ample Directions for collecting and preserving them in the greatest Perfection; with competent Instructions for forming a Seedling Nursery, &c. &c. Peculiarly interesting to Nobility and Gentry, and the Agricultural, Ornamental, and Scientific Planter. By Thomas Haynes, Propagator of Trees, Shrubs, and Plants, at Oundle, Northamptonshire. 8vo. pp. 222. 11. 1s. Boards. Sold by the Author at Oundle, and at No. 24. Pitt Street, Fitzroy Square.

Art. 30. *Interesting Discoveries in Horticulture*; being an easy, rational, and efficacious System of Propagating all hardy American and Bog Soil Plants, with Ornamental Trees and Shrubs of general Description, Green House Plants, including Botany Bay

and Cape Plants; Herbaceous Plants, affording favourable Shoots, and Fruit Trees, in every Variety; by planting Cuttings, chiefly in the warm Months, without artificial Heat. By Thomas Haynes, &c. 8vo. pp. 180. 2l. 2s. Boards. Sold by the author.

As these works contain some just observations, and many useful directions, in practical gardening, they will be read by *amateurs* with satisfaction, and by professional men with some degree of curiosity and interest. To the latter, however, we apprehend that they will furnish less of new matter or instruction than the title-pages promise; and indeed an air of puffing prevails throughout, supported by enormous pretensions in the price of the volumes, which we consider as unfavorable both to Mr. Haynes and to purchasers.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 31. *Lectures on the Church Catechism;* to which is added, a Lecture on Confirmation. By the Rev. Robert Rigby, Vicar of St. Mary's, Beverley. 12mo. 2s. Crosby and Co.

Being designed for the use of young people, these lectures are plain and concise: they are therefore better calculated for the purpose intended, than the compositions of Secker, Gilpin, and others. Mr. Rigby has omitted, he tells us, to speak of the doctrine of the Holy Trinity, as being above the comprehension of youth; and he endeavours to lead his hearers into the plain paths of practice, rather than into the thorny wilds of controversy. We wish that at p. 37. he had not suggested the notion of evil spirits, which is already in a great measure banished from the modern nursery. He explains "the descent into hell" to mean only the departure of the soul to the invisible world, and not a descent to the place of the damned. The design of confirmation is very clearly illustrated: it is stated to be 'a solemn personal dedication to God and virtue;' and parents would do well to read these short lectures to such of their children as are going before the bishop.

Art. 32. *Certain Principles in Evanson's "Dissonance of the Four generally received Evangelists," &c., examined,* in Eight Discourses delivered before the University of Oxford, at St. Mary's, in the Year 1810, at the Lecture founded by the late Rev. John Bampton, Canon of Salisbury. By Thomas Falconer, A.M., of Corpus Christi College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 400. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

The preachers of the Bampton Lecture-sermons may now be considered as labouring under some difficulty in the choice of a subject, though Mr. Falconer is by no means willing to make any confession of this kind. His selection, however, we cannot regard as happy; being of opinion that the species of objections to the four Gospels, contained in Evanson's "Dissonance," are of a nature not best adapted for pulpit-discussion. Regarded, however, as university-declamations, in which the ingenuity of the disputant is the prime object of notice, these discourses may be a plume of feathers in Mr. F.'s cap; though the mode of examination is too loose and desultory to be completely satisfactory to the plain philosophic inquirer, who

will think that the preacher does not so grapple with Mr. Evanson as completely to throw him on his back. We have much distant skirmishing, but no coming to close quarters; we have general remarks and observations in abundance, but, as Mr. F. has avoided any recapitulation or summing up, the reader is left in doubt as to the final issue. Now the kind of refutation which ought to be applied to the "Dissonance" should be conducted independently of eloquence, with a plain strait-forward exhibition of facts and authorities; such as a Lardner would have given had the task been assigned to him. The fault of Mr. Falconer is that he grants too little, and endeavours to prove too much. An outline of his plan is given in the following passage:

'It will be my object in this investigation to refer a large mass of minute and independent objections to some general topics of discussion, and trace them to their principles. I propose therefore to examine the passages of Scripture relative to the application of prophecy, as a standard of the authenticity of the sacred writings; to determine the sufficiency of the external evidence, when compared with prophecy, for the authority of these works; to enquire whether the publication of spurious and fictitious books had, at the time, any influence in perplexing the question respecting the genuineness of the Scriptures; to ascertain the grounds on which we receive the two first chapters of St. Matthew's Gospel; to investigate in what manner, if in any, the establishment of Christianity in the time of Constantine, as the religion of the state, tended to facilitate the corruption of the written Gospels; and to reconcile the supposed anachronisms in the language of the Gospels by an historical sketch of the diffusion of the Greek tongue among various parts of the world.'

Passing over most of the subjects here proposed for examination, we shall merely advert to the theme of the last discourse. Here Mr. F. is unwilling to allow, though the position in itself is highly probable, and though the evidence of antiquity is in its favour, that Matthew's Gospel was first written in Hebrew; and he contends that the existing Greek Gospels are not versions, but originals. To prepare us for subscribing to this doctrine, he declaims on the general prevalence of the Greek language at the time of our Saviour's appearance: but it by no means follows, from any part or from the whole of his evidence, that Greek was the vernacular language of Palestine. The strongest proof to the contrary is a fact of which the author takes no notice, viz. that our Lord himself did not use it in his discourses; so that, whether the Evangelists originally wrote in Greek or not, the language of Christ, as exhibited in the Greek Gospels, is merely a version. It cannot be conceded to Mr. F. that 'the majority of the Jews who resorted to Jerusalem probably used the Greek language.' The majority of people of education probably did, but not the majority of the multitude. Like French at the present day, it was a language known to the gentry, but not to the community. The passage selected for the text of the eighth sermon is a case in point. Paul, when addressing the chief captain, shewed himself to be a person of education by speaking to him in Greek: but, when he directed his discourse to the people, he employed the

Hebrew vernacular dialect. Besides, is it more improbable that Matthew, or Levi, who was a Jew, should write a Gospel intended for the use of his countrymen in Hebrew, than that Josephus, another Jew, should compose his history in that language; which, by his own confession, we know that he did? — After all that Mr. F. has advanced respecting the prevalence of the Greek language, he has left us to find out how his remarks particularly apply to the supposed anachronisms which Mr. E. specified: he seems to demand a triumph before he has gained a victory; and, unlike the true Christian disputant, he takes his leave of Mr. Evanson with this proud and insulting dogma, "*Qui post semel inventam veritatem aliud quærit, mendacium quærit, non veritatem.*" "What a bounce!" said one of Mr. F.'s readers: — "This is making short work with all free inquirers," said another: —This is not a finale adapted to our taste, say the Monthly Reviewers. It is not the language of 'justifiable indignation.'

To these eight discourses is appended a probationary discourse, in which Mr. Falconer labours to establish the reality of the Gun-powder Plot; which some modern sceptics, Protestants as well as Catholics, are much disposed to controvert; and which, when all circumstances are fully examined, "comes in a very questionable shape." Mr. F., with all his ingenuity, has not removed our doubts: but he speaks out manfully on the subject of the Revolution; and he very rationally observes, in conclusion, 'that however desirable a state of national tranquillity may appear to be in a speculative light, yet where the powers of the mind, the emotions of the heart, and the strength of the animal frame are permitted, in any country, to produce their full effects in determining and improving the condition of man, there the balance of the political constitution can never be quiescent, and where such an equilibrium is supposed to exist, we find on one side a despot, and on the other, slaves.'

The notes manifest the preacher's reading and literary research.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 33. *Narrative of the most remarkable Events which occurred in and near Leipzig*, immediately before, during, and subsequent to, the sanguinary Series of Engagements between the Allied Armies and the French, from the 14th to the 19th October, 1813. Illustrated with Military Maps, exhibiting the Movements of the respective Armies. Compiled and translated from the German by Frederic Shoberl. 8vo. 5s. Ackermann. 1814.

That Great Britain, in consequence of her insular situation and the protection of her vast navy, has remained unannoyed by the horrors of war, during a period in which the whole continent of Europe has been desolated by the most sanguinary conflicts, is a subject for national gratitude: but, with our gratitude, we ought to blend sentiments of pity for those whose countries have been made the theatre of desolation. Our charity on these occasions, to the honour of the people be it spoken, has been prompt, and we have no doubt that the appeal here made to our feelings will be efficacious*.

* A subscription for the sufferers has been successfully commenced; and the pamphlet before us has already reached a fifth edition.

Germany

Germany has indeed suffered in the extreme; and the pictures of misery here detailed are affecting enough to move a heart of stone. If such be the horrors of war, who is there that must not wish for peace, and such a peace as will tend to settle Europe! War has been long prosecuted on a scale of unexampled destruction; and, if it continues with ravages similar to those which have lately been witnessed in Saxony, the Continent in a few years must present a dreadful solitude. The narrative before us is derived from an eye-witness, and it cannot fail of accomplishing its purpose; which is to awaken the sympathies and to call forth the humanity of the British nation. Speaking of the conflict mentioned in the title, the author observes that

'It was unparalleled in regard to the form, for it was fought in a circle which embraced more than fifteen miles;—it was unparalleled in regard to the prodigious armies engaged, for almost half a million of warriors out of every region of Europe and Asia, from the mouth of the Tajo to the Caucasus, with near two thousand pieces of cannon, were arrayed against one another;—it was unparalleled in regard to its duration, for it lasted almost one hundred hours;—it was unparalleled in regard to the plan so profoundly combined and so maturely digested by the allies, and characterized by an unity, which, in a gigantic mass, composed of such multifarious parts, would have been previously deemed impossible;—it was unparalleled also in regard to its consequences, the full extent of which time alone can develop, and the first of which, the dissolution of the confederation of the Rhine, the overthrow of the continental system, and the deliverance of Germany, are already before our eyes:—finally, it is unparalleled in regard to single extraordinary events, the most remarkable of which is, that the majority of the allies of the grand army, who had fought under the banners of France in so many engagements with exemplary valour and obstinacy, in the midst of this conflict, as if wakened by an electric shock, went over in large bodies, with their drums beating and with all their artillery, to the hostile legions, and immediately turned their arms against their former comrades.'

We may judge of the effects of the ravages of such an army on the property and situation of the inhabitants, from the following account given by a venerable Saxon nobleman, of the devastation committed on his own estate:

'The ever-memorable and eventful battles of the 16th to the 19th of October began exactly upon and between my two estates of Störmthal and Liebertwolkwitz. All that the oppressive imposts, contributions, and quarterings, as well as the rapacity of the yet unvanquished French, had spared, became on these tremendous days a prey to the flames, or was plundered by those who called themselves allies of our king, but whom the country itself acknowledged as such only through compulsion. Whoever could save his life with the clothes upon his back might boast of his good fortune; for many, who were obliged, with broken hearts, to leave their burning houses, lost their apparel also. Out of the produce of a tolerably plentiful harvest, not a grain is left for sowing; the little that was in the barns was consumed in *bivouac*, or, next morning, in spite of the prayers

prayers and entreaties of the owners, wantonly burned by the laughing fiends. Not a horse, not a cow, not a sheep, is now to be seen; nay, several species of animals appear to be wholly exterminated in Saxony. I have myself lost a flock of 2000 Spanish sheep, Tyrolese and Swiss cattle, all my horses, waggons, and household utensils. The very floors of my rooms were torn up; my plate, linen, and important papers and documents, were carried away and destroyed. Not a looking-glass, not a pane in the windows, or a chair, is left. The same calamity befell my wretched tenants, over whose misfortunes I would willingly forget my own. All is desolation and despair, aggravated by the certain prospect of epidemic diseases and famine. Who can relieve such misery, unless God should be pleased to do it by means of those generous individuals, to whom, in my own inability to help, I am now obliged to appeal?"

For this nobleman, Count Schönfeld, Mr. Ackermann has opened a subscription at his house in the Strand, where a book is kept for the receipt of contributions. He has informed us, moreover, in an advertisement, that the profits arising from this work will be applied to the relief of the unfortunate inhabitants of Leipzig and its vicinity. We are glad to find that it obtains an extensive sale. It merits perusal; and a double reason exists for purchasing it.

Art. 34. *Maxims, Reflections, and Biographical Anecdotes.* Selected for the Use of Young Persons. By James Hews Bransby. 12mo. 2s. half-bound. Johnson and Co. 1813.

This selection is deficient in arrangement, the passages in each section having no obvious connection with each other: but they all inculcate laudable sentiments, and may therefore be safely put into the hands of young people.

Art. 35. *Three Hundred and Sixty-five Tables,* exhibiting without Calculation the Number of Days from each Day in the Year, to every other Day in the Year. By J. N. Cossham, Accountant, Bristol. 12mo. pp. 735. 18s. bound. Longman and Co. 1813.

The object of this work is sufficiently explained in the title-page, it being nothing else than a tabular statement of the number of days from any one day of the year to any other. The common tables of the kind exhibit only the number of days from any period of the year to its end; and, though this may be sufficient for most accounts, the 31st of December being the ordinary period to which interest is calculated, cases may occur which may require a table terminating at a different date. The 30th of April, for example, is the ordinary term at which West-India houses are in the habit of closing their accounts current, because the old crop is in general sold off and the new one is beginning to come to market at that time. Many other mercantile men are in the habit of making half-yearly statements of accounts, taking Midsummer or 30th June as a closing date. To those persons, the present tables will evidently be useful; and the compiler, we think, would have done well to have rested their merits on this simple basis, instead of claiming for them (Advertisement, paragraphs 2d and 3d) the praise of utility in other points, which every

man

man of business is in the habit of adjusting without reference to a printed work.

Art. 36. *Particulars of the Life of a Dissenting Minister.* Written by Himself. With occasional Reflections, illustrative of the Education and professional State of the Dissenting Clergy, and of the Character and Manners of the Dissenters in general. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Jones. 1813.

Though this publication is anonymous, it displays so much feeling, spirit, and ingenuousness, that we cannot hesitate to yield the fullest credit to the whole of this narrative; — a narrative of a singular character, and which must be perused with the liveliest interest by the whole body of Protestant Dissenters, including ministers and their flocks. The philosopher, also, whose attention is drawn to these pages, will find in them ample matter for serious speculation. He will recognize, in Dissenting ministers, a class of men who must excite at once his pity and his admiration; who display a professional ardour under many difficulties and privations; and who become the victims of that church-liberty for which they contend, and the martyrs to that freedom of inquiry on which the whole principle of dissent is founded. Those clergy of the Established Church, who may happen to cast their eyes on this memoir, will "bless their stars" that their "lot has been cast in a fairer ground;" and that, if they have not felt the enthusiasm of the Dissenting student in the pursuit of religious knowlege, they have never been dependent on their congregations, and, consequently, have not experienced his poverty and mortifications. We question whether the mass of Dissentients will relish the plain unvarnished tale which is here offered to the public. The author means to probe to the quick, and it is hoped that he will not probe in vain: but we suspect that the evils, on which he so pathetically animadverts, are to a certain extent inherent in the constitution of Dissenting churches. A priesthood elected by its flocks, and depending for a scanty subsistence on their subscriptions, must not only be subject to much vulgar caprice, fickleness, and rudeness, but can never count on any permanent settlement, nor on any provision for old age. It has been remarked that, to the support of the cause of Dissenters, their ministers are the greatest contributors; and these men, often possessing no inconsiderable talents and literary endowments, sacrifice the most valuable part of life in the performance of duties for which they receive the most paltry salaries, without the prospect of any future remuneration. We may produce the author of this affecting memoir as an evidence of the fact; and, unless his remonstrances should have some effect on the body of Protestant Dissenters at large, we may venture to predict that the future supply of learned ministers will be very small.

This self-biographer is a man of no mean attainments: on the several incidents of his life, on the state of the Dissenting clergy, and on the character of the people who constitute Dissenting congregations, his reflections are acute and instructive. He presents us in this volume with only a part of his history: but his style is so manly, and this specimen is executed with so much truth of colouring, that we hope he will be encouraged to give us the whole. To avoid offence,

offence, he cautiously omits the mention of persons and places; and we have no knowlege whatever of his name or connections. He suspects that 'the account which he has given of himself may appear to border on romance;' and he is aware that the circumstance of his being anonymous may weaken the weight of his testimony: but he begs the reader to recollect that his 'name may not continue for ever, nor even long, concealed, and that when it is detected, all the infamy of deception, if he has deceived, will attach to his real character.' Judging by internal evidence, we are fully confident that here no deception is practised, and that the author has honestly recorded the incidents which actually took place in his life. At the same time, it must not be forgotten that in these pages his 'design has been more to describe a class than an individual, to paint manners than to detail incidents;' so that, if we must not say *ex uno disce omnes*, we may conclude that the outlines of his sketch suit many of this gentleman's profession.

The tale throughout is of a sombre cast; and it is prefaced with the melancholy intimation that the days of the author have been filled with evils which admitted of but little alloy, and that vexation and sorrow have marked the last 25 years of his life. For the details, we must refer to the memoir, which appears to have been written not so much for the sake of the events that marked the author's life, as for the strictures and observations relative to Dissenting colleges and churches with which it is abundantly interspersed, and which merit the serious consideration of those to whom they are addressed.

Art. 37. *Aphorisms from Shakspeare;* arranged according to the Plays, &c.; with a Preface and Notes, numeral References to each Subject, and a copious Index. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1812.

'A young lady, "*nella più fiorita et verde etate*," first conceived the idea of forming, and in a great measure executed, this selection from our immortal bard;' which Mr. Capel Lofft has endeavoured to complete, not only by making large additions to the Aphorisms, but by furnishing an introductory preface, references to various classical authors at the bottom of the page, and a very useful index at the end of the volume. This learned gentleman appears to have engaged "in the labour he delights in," which has done more than "physic pain:" it has excited an enthusiasm creative of positive pleasure. We shall venture to hint, however, that, in the gratification of enthusiastic feeling, he has displayed his reading with unnecessary profusion; and that the title, which he has chosen to affix to this selection, is not adapted to many passages which it contains. According to the definition here given, "an aphorism is a clear, concise, detached, pithy sentence:" but does the passage extracted from Henry V., at p. 180., extending to more than 30 lines, come under this description? Would not the hacknied title of *Beauties* or *Essence of Shakspeare* have been preferable to that of *Aphorisms?* It would have been more adapted to the extracts taken *en masse:* but then Mr. Lofft could not have descanted so learnedly and diffusely on the long string of writers, antient and modern, who have professedly furnished their

their quota to the aphoristic treasure, or of those from whose writings aphorisms may be collected. Extensive as Mr. L.'s enumeration of the latter class now is, he might have enlarged it by subjoining the name of every valuable writer in every language, not excepting even Euclid, whose remark that "the three angles of a plain triangle are equal to two right angles" is an "aphorism;" which, in the introduction to this volume, is defined to be '*an interesting truth or principle reduced to a concise, simple, and impressive proposition.*'

Ben Jonson truly says of Shakspeare that "he was not of an age, but for all time;" and from his rich mine of philosophic and moral wisdom, aphorisms that are applicable to almost every subject may be selected. We therefore approve the design of the present undertaking, which 'places him, perhaps, in a clearer and stronger light than he has yet been seen, as to some very high characteristic merits: as a most acute and profound thinker, a most comprehensive reasoner; a consummate teacher of private prudence and political wisdom: as uniting with the most exalted genius and poetic enthusiasm an heart full of love and veneration to the SUPREME BEING! of the relative and social sympathies; of justice, magnanimity, and benevolence, in the most extended view.'

Mr. Lofft adds, 'I know not how to imagine that any one should rise from the perusal of this little volume, without still higher thoughts of *Shakspeare* than they brought with them when they sat down; some accession of intellectual strength; improvement in the conduct of life; a more lively sense of the beauty of virtue, and of all the relative offices and affections which cement and adorn society, constituting individual happiness and public welfare. I know not of any professed system of *ethics* from which they could have been extracted more copiously, more perspicuously and correctly; or, by the influence of their form and manner, so impressively.'

He concludes:

'I think I may flatter myself that this little book may contribute to make *Shakspeare* even now more known among us; and to give *foreigners*, should it fall into their hands, a more just sense of the greatness of his intellect and the goodness of his heart: the merit of his aphorisms being such in kind and extent as they probably have very little supposed.'

Shakspeare is here asserted to be 'one of the *most purely moral* of all writers:' but surely, as far as indelicacy operates against good morals, some abatement of this encomium must be made.

It is remarked by the editor, on a passage numbered Aphorism 2032, that Shakspeare has here drawn his own picture. We shall quote it:

——— "Some there are
Who on the tip of their persuasive tongue
Carry all arguments and questions deep;
And replication prompt and reason strong,
To make the weeper smile, the laugher weep.
They have the dialect and different skill,
Catching all passions in the craft of will;
That in the general bosom they do reign,
Of young and old, and either sex enchain."

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This passage is very expressive of the vast powers of Shakspeare: but it is not an aphorism.

For the exhibition of Shakspeare as a writer of maxims relative to human life and manners, this volume will be useful both to our own countrymen and to foreigners: but we should have been better pleased had the editor's idolatry of Shakspeare restrained him from altering the text, or from accommodating the words of the bard of Avon to a meaning different from that which he intended. Let Shakspeare, whether he speaks dramatically or aphoristically, appear as he is: but let not his language be twisted and turned about by additions, alterations, &c., to say what Mr. L. or any other person may chuse to put into his mouth.

This little volume is even more incorrectly printed than the long list of errata indicates; and the aphorisms should have been arranged in one series.

Art. 38. *Tracts on important Subjects;* Historical, Controversial, and Devotional, by Micaiah Towgood, late Pastor of the two united Congregations, Exeter; and Author of "The Dissent from the Church of England fully justified." 8vo. pp. 560. 12s. Boards. Jones, &c.

Mr. Micaiah Towgood was a Dissenting divine of the last century, who obtained considerable celebrity by his spirited and able defence of the principles and conduct of the Dissenters in their separation from the Church of England; he was also a Whig of the old school, and advocated the cause of civil and religious liberty as settled at the Revolution. His writings are now held in esteem by the denomination of Christians to which he belonged; and this collection of tracts, edited by Mr. Flower, will be very acceptable to them. The first Essay, here reprinted, consists of an examination of the character and reign of Charles I., and of the causes of the civil war; the second and third are on Infant Baptism; the fourth, fifth, and sixth relate to the Principles of Dissent; the seventh is intitled "Spanish Cruelty and injustice, a justifiable Plea for a vigorous War with Spain; and a rational Ground for Hopes of Success," first published in 1741; and the remaining tracts are of a devotional and practical nature.

We shall not re-trace the grounds of Mr. T.'s controversy with the Church of England: but, as the Essay towards attaining a true Idea of the Character of Charles I. is drawn up with much ability, and as unquestionable facts and documents are adduced in support of the opinions advanced, we may recommend it to the consideration of those who wish to study the subject of the reign of that unfortunate monarch. We copy the conclusion:

'Having from a series of most clear and incontestable facts, and from the suffrage of the most authentic historians of those times, attempted an idea of the character and reign of King Charles I.; I only add — will it not extremely astonish posterity to find the memory of this prince still celebrated in the English nation with the highest honours and applause! To see a tribute of yearly incense offered up to his name in the most holy places of the kingdom; to hear him almost adored as a royal and blessed martyr; extolled far above all

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the princes that ever filled the British throne; pronounced not the best of kings only, but the most excellent and best of men; and a parallel often run betwixt his sufferings and the Son of God's; yea, his treatment represented as in some respects more barbarous, iniquitous, and vile, than that of our blessed Lord!

'Strange! That the English nation, who glory in their constitution as a limited monarchy; who have always been extremely jealous of any encroachments on it, and who dethroned by force of arms and banished the son for less breaches of the constitution than were made by his unhappy father, should yet stigmatize that just war of the parliament with Charles I. with the odious name of a Rebellion: a war by which alone their expiring liberties were preserved, and their beloved constitution snatched from the cruel arm of oppressive and arbitrary power.

'If this war was a rebellion, so surely was that too which drove King James from his dominions, and made way for the Revolution and the happy succession under which we are now placed. The war against Charles I., it is carefully to be noted, was waged by the parliament of England, legally assembled; an original and essential part of the legislature, sharers in the supreme power together with the King: but the war against James II. was waged by a foreign Prince encouraged and invited over only by particular subjects. If the former therefore was a great rebellion, the latter surely was a much greater. To call it therefore by this name is to reproach the Revolution; to strike at the foundation of our present happy settlement; and to shake the right of his sacred Majesty King George to his throne: whom God long preserve; a blessing to this, and a bright pattern of justice and tenderness of his people's rights, to distant future ages. — And of his illustrious house may there never want a branch to be a terror and a scourge to tyrants, and the support of our constitution, till time itself shall end!'

It will hence be seen that Mr. T. was a most strenuous Whig: but he has brought such a number of facts together, and facts resting on the best evidence, for the purpose of placing the character of Charles I. in its proper light, that his essay deserves more notice than it seems to have obtained. If his statements can be refuted, they ought to be refuted, for the credit of the monarch on whose character they now bear with so much weight.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Quidnunc is informed that we have not forgotten the posthumous works of Mr. Burke, but mean to attend to them very soon: probably in our next Number.

H. A.'s letter is received, but we cannot find that the work to which it refers ever came into our hands.

We know nothing of the volume of poems from the pen of a lady, which Dr. M. requests us to 'take an early opportunity of reviewing.'

*** The APPENDIX to our lxxiid Volume was published on the first of February, with the Review for January.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MARCH, 1814.

ART. I. *Mr.* Eustace's *Tour through Italy.*

[*Article continued from p.* 128.]

RETURNING from his excursion to Naples, the author revisited Rome with impressions of veneration yet more profound than that which was inspired by his first entrance into the 'Eternal City.' In his travels from the German frontier, he was at first struck by the change from Trans-alpine to Cis-alpine proportions in architecture; and nature and the works of man, — that harmony the offspring of the south, which breathes in language and glows in colours, — and many of the graces of peerless Italy, had already characterized the soil which he trod as the land of wonders. Those declamations against Italian idleness, Italian cruelty, Italian cowardice, Italian filth, and all the idle or wicked charges that have been brought by ignorance or malice against this envied parent of great men and great works, which our elementary book * of geography carefully instils into the minds of our boys and girls, with the design of keeping them for ever boys and girls, are fairly met, learnedly refuted, or indignantly rejected; and the country of Columbus, Tasso, and Michael Angelo, — of enterprize, poesy, and the arts, — is vindicated by no common champion.

Placentia, Vicenza, Parma, and Venice, rich and almost inexhaustible as they may appear in monuments of antient and of more modern days, formed but the vestibule to the sacred metropolis. He, therefore, who wishes to improve himself by a sojourn in Rome would do well to enter it from the north. Having passed the Alps, and even at intervals among their gorges, he stands on ground truly classical: but he will yet detect many ultramontane fashions, and a taste that does not well harmonize with the happy clime, which gradually retire as he advances, and by degrees yield to the true costume of Italy. This imperceptible initiation into the mysteries of Rome wears off that strangeness which a more sudden arrival would cause

* Guthrie.

in the mind of a novice, and forms as it were a grammar that will enable him to comprehend men of different feelings and habits. On the other hand, the traveller who first sets foot on Italian ground at Naples will find himself in a city, and among a people, that would ill prepare him for comprehending the charms of that shrine to which his pilgrimage is directed. Although Naples, from the account of Mr. Eustace, has been shewn not to merit the obloquy which has been thrown on it, yet is it, in population, manners, architecture, and *ensemble*, a mean and inadequate preparative to the mistress of the world. It is, indeed, with respect to population, the third city in Europe: — but a population of doubtful origin, of which all that is known proves it to be a heterogeneous mixture of Greeks, Normans, and emigrants from Africa and elsewhere, — the perpetual importation of foreign manners, attributable to its maritime situation, — long subjugation to a bigoted and avaricious court, which had assumed the mastery of its treasures and its industry, — the careless indifference of a people whose pride was thus exposed to perpetual insult, — and a climate inspiring love, idleness, and dissipation, — form, on the whole, an order of things the most opposite that can be conceived to the severe majesty of Rome.

He who enters Italy from the north perceives the countenance, figure, manners, arts, and pride of localities, assuming at every stage an appearance more and more Roman as he advances; and whatever may be his admiration on pressing the venerable soil itself, he is enabled to turn his pilgrimage to a greater account from having faintly seen, in cities of less note, some part of those characteristic features which arrive at their full prominence in Rome. On the contrary, he who has yet in his mind the stir, the animation, and the gaiety that pervade the streets of Naples, is presented with a contrast rather than a preparation. The sudden transition from noise, bustle, and pleasure, in which he has been immersed in that city, to the silence and solemnity which seem to reign undisturbed over all the quarters of Rome, — the solidity and magnitude of Roman edifices, — and the huge masses of ruin that rise occasionally to view, like monuments of a superior race of beings, — bear no reference and have no analogy to the scenes which he has left. 'He seems to have passed over not miles, but ages, and to have arrived at a mansion where the agitations of the *present* are absorbed in the contemplation of the *past*, and the passions of this world are lost in that which is to succeed it.' Let not the voluptuary or the idler presume to profane the haunts of a metropolis in which he will find no balls, routs, or operas, to deceive the listlessness of his vacant hours. Her colossal buildings, —

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her stately columns, at whose bases the strength of ages has been broken, — the ceaseless noise of her perennial fountains, — her innumerable statues, which resemble a people dumb and motionless in the midst of the living, — her every rood of ground, sacred to grand recollections, — reproach the dissipated and the frivolous loiterer, while they invite the studious, the scientific, and the contemplative. Here, says the Abbe Barthélémy, on his first visit to the capitol, we find antient Ægypt, antient Athens, antient Rome.

On his return to this famed city, Mr. Eustace devotes himself to the consideration of her former grandeur, and the amazing extent, solidity, and utility of her public works. Of these works many, it is true, were temples and palaces; and the former, in the eye of a Christian philosopher, might be vain and idle, while the latter would appear something worse than useless.

Indeed, when we look at materials so precious, and which were distributed into such fair proportions merely for the purposes of harbouring an idol or a despot, we may regret their application: but who is so cold a calculator as to refuse his enthusiasm to the works themselves? Happily for the credit of Roman sense as well as Roman glory, their buildings, or at least a large proportion of them, were not less productive of cleanliness, salubrity, and convenience, than of the beauty of their capital. "Shall I," says Frontinus, "compare the idle bulk of the pyramids, or the equally useless but celebrated works of the Greeks, with the solid and beneficial piles which conduct so many waters to the city?" and indeed the cloacæ, aqueducts, roads, forums, porticos, baths, &c. of Rome, as works of convenience and utility, would, independently of any additional title, challenge the competition of all ages and of all countries. Other cities, antient and modern, owe their fame to one or a few edifices: but Rome seems to have presented a perpetual succession of architectural scenery, every object of which, taken separately, would have constituted the principal ornament of a capital.

The antient Greeks pretended, and their admirers at present are often heard to maintain, that Rome owed all her magnificence to the arts of Greece, which she learned during the Etolian and Macedonian wars; and the acknowlegement of Horace appears to confirm this pretension, so flattering to Grecian pride and vanity:

> "*Græcia capta ferum victorem cepit, et artes*
> *Intulit agresti Latio.*"

Horace, however, as a poet, may be supposed to allude to the arts of poetry, criticism, and rhetoric; and surely to these his admission must be confined: for, of the three

most useful works, Rome was indebted for her cloacæ, of which the solidity is the wonder of the present day, to Tarquinius Superbus, and for her aqueducts and roads to Appius Claudius, whose master-minds conceived these bold and almost original undertakings. That the decemvirs, who visited Athens for the purpose of borrowing the laws and ordinances of an elder people, might, with the laws which they introduced, have brought back new hints and innovations in the arts, is by no means improbable: but no great change appears to have then taken place; and the Romans, leaving to the Greeks the pre-eminence in temples and in statues, applied themselves strenuously during their republican æra to objects of solid use. At that period, we hear of no palaces;

> "*Privatus illis census erat brevis*
> *Commune magnum.*"

Possessed of many *Fora venalia*, they had as yet but one *Forum civile*. The *Forum Romanum*, or, as it is otherwise called, by way of distinction, the *Great Forum*, — "*terris fatale regendis*," — appears to have been too small for its destination; and indeed it should seem, in the order of things, that buildings of real utility must precede fanes, obelisks, basilicæ, palaces, theatres, circusses, and all the prodigality of magnificence which adorned imperial Rome. The Greeks appear to have confined their magnificence to gates, mausoleums, and temples: but, among all their ruins which we visit, and all their perfect structures of which we read, it would be difficult to find a temple equal in beauty to the Pantheon, in magnitude to that of Peace, and in splendor to that of Jupiter Capitolinus; while the elevation of Hadrian's tomb, and the enormous circumference of the Coliseum, appear to have left the Halicarnassean mausoleum and the theatres of Greece far behind them.

Calamitous as were some ages that succeeded, and bigoted as was the character of most, 'the natural tendency of the Roman mind to the grand and the wonderful' was destined again to manifest itself.

'The same noble taste shone forth with unusual splendor at the restoration of the arts in the sixteenth century, and displayed itself in numberless instances, too well known to be enumerated, but above all in the removal of the Vatican obelisk, and the conception and erection of that stupendous edifice, the *Basilica Vaticana*. Nay, even in our days, and almost under our eyes, works have been planned and executed in or near Rome, which would have reflected honor on the greatest of the Roman emperors. Among these we may rank the restoration of three of the ancient obelisks, the formation of the museum *Pium Clementinum*, and above all, the draining of the *Pomptine* marshes. The late Pontiff shares the honor of the two first of these

these undertakings, and may claim the exclusive credit of the last, the most difficult, the most useful, and consequently the most glorious. He had formed two other projects, which if executed would have contributed in a singular manner to the splendor of the city. The first was the erection of a forum at the *Porta del Popolo*, on the plan of Vitruvius, which would have made the grandeur of the principal entrance into Rome adequate to the expectation of the traveller, and to the fame of the city. The other was on a scale still greater than the preceding, and intended to form a becoming approach to St. Peter's, by a double colonnade from the *Ponte St. Angelo*, to the entrance of the portico. The distance is a mile; and the extent of such an edifice, combined with the unequalled magnitude and elevation of its termination, the obelisk, front and dome of the Vatican, would have formed a scene of beauty and grandeur, equalling, perhaps surpassing, any single perspective in the ancient city.

'I need not add, that these and several other similar designs were frustrated by the agitations of the Revolution, the invasion of Italy, and the occupation of Rome itself: but in justice to the deceased *Pontiff*, I must repeat what I have elsewhere related, that his last project was the most noble and most glorious, because, if crowned with the success it merited, it would have been more beneficial to Rome, to Italy, and to Europe, than all the others united. The design I allude to was no less than a confederation of all the states, and an union of all the forces and means of Italy in order to protect the common country against a French invasion. The infatuation of the different governments defeated the patriotic efforts of the Pontiff; they were annihilated, and he was dragged into exile. These disasters have for the present time, and probably for many years to come, checked all public exertions, and suspended the numberless projects which had been formed for improving and beautifying the city.'

We wish that the whole of this extract were engraved on *every* mind; and that the concluding idea should present itself to all the sovereigns in whose hands are the destinies of Europe, through every stage of their treaty for a general pacification. If, in addition to these happy conceptions, the Romans would be attentive to the principal charm of their city, (its antiquity,) would preserve from farther outrage the vestiges of antient days, and would restore their primitive names to the streets and public buildings which remain, they would do much to merit our gratitude: but so far is such a happy change from being probable, that Mr. Eustace declares the work of destruction to be yet pursued. Of modern temples and modern palaces, many are deserted, and many half supported; and, in the lapse of a century or two, the future traveller, if his prediction be fatally accomplished, 'will have to admire and deplore the ruins of the Medicean as of the Augustan age, the fragments of pontifical as of imperial grandeur.'

We have not denied ourselves the pleasure of expatiating with Mr. Eustace over the present and the past magnificence of this mighty city: indeed, it is impossible to peruse his work without catching a kindred spark from the classical and well-directed enthusiasm of his researches:—but there are objects, to which man is called, more intimately connected with reason and his better nature, than the perfection of art; and all the splendor with which he is surrounded is but a satire on his misery, if the government be not framed for the happiness of the multitude. It is true that the poorest Roman could, without cost or trouble, feast his eyes on objects far surpassing any luxury that is placed within the reach of the sovereigns of other countries. It may be true that the chair of St. Peter was the only substitute that circumstances allowed to the throne of the Cæsars. It may be true that Gregory the Seventh and his successors contrived, with arms apparently inadequate, to free Italy 'from the yoke of a German, that is, a barbarian and absentee ruler;' and that a state, in despair of fixing the sound principles of government, might breathe and exist under the dominion of art, fraud, and superstition. This may have been the best remedy that the actual disease admitted at the time; and, compared with other co-existing institutions, that which protected learning and the arts, and distributed the only form of religion then known and acknowleged, might claim the precedence. The attempt, however, to form a theocracy, whose support is mere pageantry and shew, and whose principle it is to exclude from government both nobles and commoners and all whose intimacy with the world should fit them most for governing, whatever scope it may give to the arts, must surely be a fetter to the spirit and enterprize of a people. If, says Denina, the ambassador of Pyrrhus could with propriety call the Roman senate a congress of kings, a similar appellation might with equal veracity be applied to the modern senate of Rome, the college of cardinals, during the seventeenth century. That assembly was, strictly speaking, then composed of princes, the sons, nephews, brothers, or uncles of the first sovereigns in Europe; men who not unfrequently, as statesmen and ministers, had held the rein of empire at home, or, as ambassadors, had represented their royal relatives abroad. The union of so many illustrious persons might have given to Rome the appearance of an universal court under the pontiffs of the Medicean and Farnesian, and afterward under the Borghese, Barberini, and Pamfili families: but what field was open for the active display of sense and reason among the descendants of the masters of the world? The people were in need of occupation, of some area for exertion, thought, and enterprize.

prize. With grandeur they were feasted *usque ad nauseam.* Old men elected chiefly in decrepitude to the conduct of affairs, and who viewed themselves merely as birds of passage, were intent only, during the remnant of a vain existence, on aggrandizing their own families, whatever might be the merit or talents of the individuals who composed them. The ægis of Rome was indeed the reverence which she inspired: but history has proved that there are barbarians insensible to reverence, and assailable by fear alone. As an object of reverence, Rome was safer, because more majestic to the eye, if not to the thought, in the time of the Goths and Huns. The majesty of the place has ever been a favourite bulwark with her poets:

> "*Forti eserciti allor ti armaro, ed ora*
> *T' arma il rispetto,*"

has been acutely but fatally said; although, since her veterans have ceased to defend her, this venerable mistress of the world has been pillaged or insulted by Genseric, Odoacer, Totila, Bourbon, Buonaparte, and, in other words, by all the collected vandalism of every age. Of the last mentioned and most extraordinary invader, Mr. Eustace speaks more at length; and he describes the devastation of fair Italy with the sentiments of a pious and affectionate son: but hope beams in upon his complaint; and with an eye of prophecy he foresees that the dominion, which the French acquire by their violence, will be divested of durability by their insolence.

An ingenious dissertation on the insalubrity of the *Campagna di Roma* well merits the reflection of those who ascribe it to the inertness and languor produced by papal influence. By passages cited from the antients, the author proves that many parts of the same tract could never have been rendered more profitable than they are at present: his own reasonings are reinforced by a strong and apposite citation from Philip Howard's Theory of the Earth; and their united observations gain farther weight from the acknowleged improvement in agriculture since the otherwise more glorious ages of Italy. In the best of Roman times, a dearth in Africa or Sicily would have produced famine in the Peninsula; whereas, for some centuries, the latter, besides providing for her own support, has been enabled to export grain largely and almost without limitation to other countries.

In his farewell to Rome, the author once more sums up its leading features, as they occurred to him in a last view of the city. He is thus led to a hasty but well sustained comparison of the antient character with that of Greece, and that of the Roman

of modern days; and to a review of the statesmen, orators, poets, historians, and all the collected genius and virtue, which have ennobled this one sacred spot. To his eulogies on the antient race, no man of reading will be disposed to object; and their descendants we believe, in common with Mr. Eustace, to preserve much of the grandeur of conception, and *il decoro* of manner, together with much of the courage, which so peculiarly marked the lords of human kind: but, in such a government, where is the field for exertion? Were Rome the capital of consolidated Italy, she would doubtless be a counterpoise to Trans-alpine ambition. Her genius would rise, perhaps, recruited from its long slumber; and, with the restoration of her antient statues, which we hope will form one of the many articles of general pacification, she would glow with much of her antient ardor.

Had the author visited Florence before Rome, the remembrance of its past glories and present remains of learning, power, and the arts, would possibly have presented themselves yet more forcibly to his mind: but, if the interior of the city disappoints him, the exterior has inspired him with some of his happiest descriptions. He acknowleges, however, that the churches of Florence possess one charm unknown almost to any other capital; viz. an intimate connection with the great men who flourished in the fourteenth and fifteenth century, and who from Florence diffused the light of literature over the western world:

'The tombs of the learned Greeks who fled before the last and worst of barbarians, the Turks, and fixing at *Florence* established the seat of the Grecian muses in *Etruria*, awaken many a pleasing and many a melancholy recollection. The honours heaped on these illustrious exiles, the enthusiasm of their numerous disciples, and the propagation of their language, delight the imagination even at this distance of time, and do credit to the taste and feelings of the Italians of that *vivid* æra.'

The Medicean gallery, when visited by Mr. Eustace, was stripped of its principal ornaments, and exhibited so many vacant frames and unoccupied pedestals, that the visitors found themselves more disposed to regret its absent than to admire its present beauties. Among the former, were the Venus of Medicis, the Faun, the Wrestlers, and sixty other antient statues, the most perfect of their kind, now at Palermo; and many more, of nearly a similar description, had been transported to Paris. The paintings, at least the master-pieces, had shared the same fate, and, for the same reasons, had been either removed to Sicily or sent to France. The gallery, however, could not be said to be a dreary void; many statues and

many paintings still remained, excellent in their kinds, and capable singly of giving reputation to any Trans-alpine collection.

Its external architecture is dull and heavy: but, at the vestibule, the eye is attracted by the busts of the Medicean princes its founders, who seem to preside over the entrance, as the tutelary divinities of the place. On entering, the traveller is at first confused with intermingled statues, busts, altars, sarcophagi, shields, and trophies. The group of Niobe and her children appears from its simplicity to have escaped the rapacity of the French; whose connoisseurs contemplated with coldness, and even ventured to criticize, the portraiture of fear and grief 'without grimace, distortion, or agitation.'

"*Orba resedit*
Exanimos inter natos, natasque virumque
Diriguitque malis, nullos movet aura capillos,
In vultu color est sine sanguine, lumina mœstis
Stant immota genis — nihil est in imagine vivi."
OVID. Met. vi. 301.

In one of the halls attached to the grand gallery, stood, under a temple, (which was equal, perhaps, says the author, in interior beauty, to that of Paphos or Cythera,) the Venus of Medicis: but 'at present this temple is abandoned by its celestial inhabitant, and nearly stripped of all its furniture.' The vacant places of this and other master-pieces are conspicuous; *sed præfulgebant eo ipso quod non visebantur;* — their absence announced their value and celebrity.

The Arno, Fæsolæ, Vallombrosa, and in general all that succession of divine scenery which confessedly suggested to Milton his description of Paradise, but whose real beauties (in the opinion of Mr. Eustace) Pope only has reached in his Heloise, equal the highest flights of imagination. We should despise ourselves if we failed to participate in the rapture which touches the traveller during his visit to the Benedictine-abbey, situated among wilds and solitudes, of which the silence was interrupted only by the *sullen roar* of the bell, or the pealing anthem of the choir. — We regret that pp. 231. and 232. present two instances, in addition to the very many that have occurred, of typographical inaccuracy, which deforms a citation from Lucretius and another from Pope.

To a picturesque account of some excursions from the city to the most remarkable places in its environs, succeeds a short disquisition extracted from the researches of Lanzi into the antient languages of Italy. They are reduced to six by this writer; viz. the Etrurian, the Euganean, the Volscian, the Oscan, the Samnite, and the Umbrian. That no one of these is the primitive

mitive or aboriginal language of Italy is acknowleged, since the tribes that introduced them were invaders: but of the preceding dialects no vestige remains, and no well founded conjecture can be formed. Time, and the ascendancy of Rome, at length melted these idioms of Æolic origin (for such they are supposed to have been) into the language of Latium; and, although the Sybil was supposed to have conveyed her oracles, the Augurs to have interpreted omens, and the Aruspices to have explained prognostics, in the Etruscan, yet the full and majestic articulation of the great city was the vehicle of history, poetry, oratory, and legislation.

Lanzi pursues the progress of the Latin language from a hymn sung by the *Sacerdotes arvales*, (an order instituted by Romulus,) which was discovered on opening the foundations of the sacristy of St. Peter's in the year 1778, down to the year of Rome 600. The reader will observe in these specimens the language of the fauns and the nymphs, but by no means that of the muses. He will remark the transition from singular to plural, the neglect of agreement between the verb and the nominative, and the nominative put for the accusative in names of towns; in verbs, the present tense employed for the perfect, even so late as the year 480, the exclusion of diphthongs, and the promiscuous use of O for U, and of E for I; of which many of the particularities are proofs of an imperfect and ungrammatical language, and many are symptoms of a dialect tending to modern Italian.

From Florence, we accompany the author to Pisa, and thence to Lucca; from one of whose princes or dukes, Adalberto il Ricco, who reigned in the beginning of the tenth century, the royal family of England is supposed by Muratori to have derived its origin through the princes of Este. At Lucca, as at many other places, Mr. Eustace takes occasion, from the high state of agriculture, of the arts, and the free spirit of the people, to vindicate the Italian character from a charge of idleness most idly brought against it by the ignorant or the insolent. At this place, 'none even among the nobles appear to be exorbitantly rich, but none seem poor; the taxes are light, provisions cheap, and competency within the reach of every individual.'

Pisa (says Mr. E.) enjoys the double glory of being one of the most antient cities of Etruria, and of deriving its name and origin from the Olympic Pisa on the banks of the Alpheus:

"*Alphea ab origine Pisa*
Urbs Etrusca solo."

With her liberty, Pisa has lost her consequence. The city is at present the seat of Tuscan education, but owes more of its

existing renown to the beauty of some of its structures, and to the curious deformity of another, than to the prouder monuments of glory and independence. This latter pile is the famous campanile, belfry, or leaning tower. As the form and proportions of this tower are graceful, and its materials of the finest marbles, the author is inclined to attribute its inclination, which exceeds fourteen feet from the perpendicular, to accident more than to design. In fact, the ground at Pisa and around it, which is rather wet and swampy, may easily have yielded under edifices of such elevation and weight; and Mr. Eustace appears to have remarked that the cathedral and baptistery themselves have also a slight and almost imperceptible inclination southward.

At Leghorn, (Livorno, Liburnum,) the author and his friends embarked on board the Medusa frigate, and proceeded by sea to Genoa. As most of the greater Italian cities have been capitals to independent states, they are in general distinguished from each other by some appellation indicative either of the cities themselves or of the characters of their inhabitants. Genoa has obtained and merited the title of *La Superba.* The interior, however, presented to the traveller riches without taste, and expence of building without effect. Like Vienna, it is composed of well built lanes, and contains no wide and only three beautiful streets. These three narrow streets are composed of lines of vast and lofty palaces, of which many are entirely of marble, and all are enriched with marble portals, porticos, and columns. Ornament and glare, however, appear to be the principal ingredients of beauty in Genoese palaces and churches.

The citizens are fond of comparing their church called *Carignano,* as the Londoners are disposed to compare St. Paul's, with the cathedral of Rome; and both with equal indiscretion: but, if the title of *Superba* be accorded to the size and materials of the buildings of Genoa, her mole, her hospitals, and more especially the incomparable *Albergo dei Poveri,* her noble institutions to provide a remedy for every human want, and the remembrance of her past renown, her Doria, and her but too glorious rivalry with Venice, give her an undisputed claim to that distinction. In the better days of Italy, Venice was confessedly the first, Genoa the second, and Florence the third republic. The unhappy contest between the two former, and the wars that resulted from it, long agitated Italy, and proved destructive to her commerce and resources. Corsica, Sardinia, the islands of the Archipelago, the coasts of Syria and Africa, once acknowleged the sovereignty of Genoa; and imperial Constantinople herself saw a colony of Genoese established in her suburbs.

The

The greater proportion of gentlemen who are whirled over what is called the grand tour, being deficient in the means and the desire of communicating with the natives whose countries they visit, satisfy their own curiosity and think to satisfy that of their readers with a few stories told either by the tutor who lolls with them in the same post-chaise, or by the first Englishman whom they may meet at an inn on his return from the places which they propose to visit; and, unhappily, a man or a book that is seasoned with the *sauce piquante* of a few ill-natured anecdotes is but too acceptable to general curiosity. In vain shall a noble and rich collector admit the stranger to the secrets of his cabinet; in vain shall he change the scene to a conversazione, a dinner, or a ball: in the traveller he receives a spy and an enemy; and his hospitalities shall be requited by some malevolent or thoughtless page, which, after having diverted the tables of London, shall be translated into other languages, and thus send his name connected with ridicule or with vice over the whole continent of Europe.

If the inconsiderate attacks of such writers have their sting, how deplorable is the misfortune to a nation, as well as to an individual, to be branded by a great and popular poet with the imputation of vice, or even to be held up to ridicule! — The stain is indelible; and the *Ligurian*, deceitful, "*dum fallere fata sinebant*," will be repeated in every school, and echoed from pole to pole, as long as men shall read or Virgil be understood. Yet, if art and stratagem were the arms of the antient Ligurians, by which alone they were enabled to defer the hour of their subjection to the superior genius of Rome, the modern Ligurians have defended their soil, as it deserves to be defended, by courage and strength. The bankers and merchants of Genoa, among whom many of the nobles are included, are obliged, as it were, necessarily to cultivate good faith and honesty in their dealings: but they employ as porters men from Bergamo, a strong-bodied honest race, to the exclusion of the lower orders of Genoese. This fact may be admitted: but distrust of their own countrymen may not be the motive. As Mr. Eustace observes, nearly all the chairmen in London are Irish, and most of the watchmen are of the same nation; and some sagacious foreigner may hence infer that the English people are too weak for chairmen, and too thievish and dishonest for watchmen.—Having restored their good fame to the Genoese, the author leaves them for the passage of the Bocchetta, Novi, Pavia, and Milan.

[*To be concluded in our next Number.*]

ART.

ART. II. *The Bridal of Triermain*, or the Vale of St. John. In Three Cantos. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Ballantyne, Edinburgh; Longman and Co., London. 1813.

WE have so often discussed the manner and the merits of Mr. Scott and his countless host of imitators, that it must be superfluous for us to preface our examination of the present volume by any general remarks. We shall proceed, therefore, at once to supply our readers with some quotations from a very pleasing Fairy Tale, and shall not even detain them with any description of its design and management: which would after all be doing little more than attempting the analysis of — a cobweb.

Each canto of this 'Lover's Tale,' as it is intitled, is preceded or followed by some introductory or concluding lines; in which we are informed that a gentle youth and still more gentle dame, taking an amatory walk in a favourite wood, were agreeably employed, the one in reciting and the other in listening to 'The Bridal of Triermain.' We confess that it occurs to us, as it did to the Vicar of Wakefield when he met Mr. Jenkinson again, to think that "we have heard this before;" and, indeed, on second thoughts, it forcibly reminds us of one particular portion of that "*Interesting Oral Matter*," with which the celebrated Mr. Incledon, in the character of "*The Wandering Melodist* *," was wont to introduce his most favourite ballad:—that, we mean, in which he told us, (like the author of 'The Vale of St. John,') that "a young gentleman of respectable connections, and a young lady of equally respectable connections, were accustomed to take an evening walk in a certain grove, and that the lovely maid listened to her tuneful adorer while he sang the following lay:

"From the white-blossom'd sloe:" &c. &c. &c.

but, "sloes and white-blossoms" apart, we cannot approve of these head-pieces and tail-pieces to 'the Bridal of Triermain.' Although they contain some pretty passages, on the whole they are in bad taste; and we hope that we have sufficiently described the sort of bad taste by our comparison above. Let the author (if he pleases) omit them in any future edition of his poem; for future editions, although only a Fairy Tale, we think it may command: particularly in this "most potent, grave, and venerable," generation of poetical amateurs.

The first passage which we shall select for the amusement of our readers (who, we are sure, will thank us for not spoiling

* By an unlucky mistake, which occurred at Winchester, Mr. I. was converted, in the printed bills of his performance, into "The Wandering *Methodist*."

the

the pleasure which they may derive from perusing the story for the first time, slight as this story is,) is that in which the famous King of Round-Table memory is described as seeking an adventure in the 'Valley of St. John:'

'He rode, till over down and dell
The shade more broad and deeper fell,
And though around the mountain's head
Flow'd streams of purple, gold, and red,
Dark at the base, unblest by beam,
Frown'd the black rocks, and roar'd the stream.
With toil the king his way pursued
By lonely Threlkeld's waste and wood,
Till on his course obliquely shone
The narrow valley of SAINT JOHN,
Down sloping to the western sky,
Where lingering sun-beams love to lie.
Right glad to feel those beams again,
The king drew up his charger's rein;
With gauntlet raised he skreen'd his sight,
As dazzled with the level light,
And, from beneath his glove of mail,
Scann'd at his ease the lovely vale,
While 'gainst the sun his armour bright
Gleam'd ruddy like the beacon's light.

'Paled in by many a lofty hill,
The narrow dale lay smooth and still,
And, down its verdant bosom led,
A winding brooklet found its bed.
But, midmost of the vale, a mound
Arose, with airy turrets crown'd,
Buttress, and rampire's circling bound,
And mighty keep and tower;
Seem'd some primeval giant's hand
The castle's massive walls had plann'd,
A ponderous bulwark, to withstand
Ambitious Nimrod's power.
Above the moated entrance slung,
The balanced draw-bridge trembling hung,
As jealous of a foe;
Wicket of oak, as iron hard,
With iron studded, clenched, and barr'd,
And prong'd portcullis, joined to guard
The gloomy pass below.
But the grey walls no banners crown'd,
Upon the watch tower's airy round
No warder stood his horn to sound,
No guard beside the bridge was found,
And where the gothic gateway frown'd,
Glanced neither bill nor bow.

'Beneath

'Beneath the castle's gloomy pride,
In ample round did Arthur ride'
Three times; nor living thing he spied,
Nor heard a living sound,
Save that, awakening from her dream,
The owlet now began to scream,
In concert with the rushing stream,
That washed the battled mound.'

Here we cannot but discover the hand of a master, or rather of a masterly imitator of Mr. Scott. Some persons, indeed, have ventured an opinion that, in this case,

"None but himself *can* be his parallel;"

and that we have here the real King Harry fighting in one of his follower's coats. If so, we should be obliged to observe that the very oddest of all metamorphoses has taken place in our northern minstrel; and that he writes anonymously with much more correctness and with much less spirit than he displays *in propriâ personâ*. Some "*Walter Scotticisms*," indeed, our readers will not fail to have detected; — for instance, 'unblest by *beam*,' 'over *down and dell*,' &c.; and they will object, probably, to allow so much '*air*' to both '*turret*' and '*tower*' in one short passage. All this, however, is very admissible in the ballad-style; that modern antique, or composite order of poetry, which both writers and readers seem to have entered into a sort of family-compact to support and to admire.

The inhabitants of the Fairy Castle are well described. The king has gained admittance.

'The vaulted arch before him lay,
With nought to bar the gloomy way,
And onward Arthur paced, with hand
On Caliburn's resistless brand.

'A hundred torches, flashing bright,
Dispelled at once the gloomy night,
That loured along the walls,
And shewed the king's astonished sight
The inmates of the halls.
Nor wizard stern, nor goblin grim,
Nor giant huge of form and limb,
Nor heathen knight, was there;
But the cressets, which odours flung aloft,
Shewed, by their yellow light and soft,
A band of damsels fair!
Onward they came, like summer wave
That dances to the shore;
An hundred voices welcome gave,
And welcome o'er and o'er!

An

An hundred lovely hands assail
The bucklers of the monarch's mail,
And busy laboured to unhasp
Rivet of steel and iron clasp;
One wrapp'd him in a mantle fair,
And one flung odours on his hair;
His short curled ringlets one smooth'd down,
One wreathed them with a myrtle crown.
A bride upon her wedding day
Was tended ne'er by troops so gay.

'Loud laughed they all, — the king in vain,
With questions tasked the giddy train;
Let him entreat, or crave, or call,
T'was one reply, — loud laughed they all.
Then o'er him mimic chains they fling,
Fram'd of the fairest flowers of spring.
While some their gentle force unite,
Onward to drag the wondering knight,
Some, bolder, urge his pace with blows,
Dealt with the lily or the rose.
Behind him were in triumph borne
The warlike arms he late had worn.
Four of the train combined to rear
The terrors of Tintadgel's spear;
Two, laughing at their lack of strength,
Dragg'd Caliburn in cumbrous length;
One, while she aped a martial stride,
Placed on her brows the helmet's pride,
Then scream'd, 'twixt laughter and surprise,
To feel its depth o'erwhelm her eyes.
With revel-shout, and triumph-song,
Thus gaily marched the giddy throng.'

A fanciful little picture might be drawn from this description; and we must take this opportunity of remarking that most of the descriptions in the poem are very clearly and distinctly executed.

The fruit of King Arthur's amour with the lady of the Enchanted Hall is a fair daughter; who is destined to avenge the wrongs which her mother suffers from the inconstancy of her father, by presiding at a tournament at which the knights of the Round Table contend, and not dropping the sign which was to put an end to the combat, even when many brave warriors had expired. The wizard prophet, Merlin, rises from the earth at this juncture, and, as a punishment for her pride and cruelty, dooms Arthur's daughter to a protracted sleep:

'Sleep, until a knight shall wake thee,
For feat of arms as far renowned
As warrior of the Table Round.'

It is scarcely necessary to say that this knight is De Vaux *, the hero of the tale. He had seen the lovely Gyneth in a vision, and set out in pursuit of the reality. In the valley of St. John—but hold!—we are violating our engagement, and revealing the secrets of the Bridal of Triermain. The description of Gyneth, when she is first laid asleep by Merlin, has considerable merit:

> 'As Merlin speaks, on Gyneth's eye
> Slumber's load begins to lie;
> Fear and anger vainly strive
> Still to keep its light alive.
> Twice, with effort and with pause,
> O'er her brow her hand she draws;
> Twice her strength in vain she tries,
> From the fatal chair to rise;
> Merlin's magic doom is spoken,
> Vanoc's death must now be *wroken*,
> Slow the dark fringed eye-lids fall,
> Curtaining each azure ball,
> Slowly as on summer eves
> Violets fold their dusky leaves.
> The weighty baton of command
> Now bears down her sinking hand,
> On her shoulder droops her head;
> Net of pearl and golden thread,
> Bursting, gave her locks to flow
> O'er her arm and breast of snow.
> And so lovely seemed she there,
> Spell-bound in her ivory-chair,
> That her angry sire, repenting,
> Craved stern Merlin for relenting,
> And the champions, for her sake,
> Would again the contest wake;
> Till, in necromantic night,
> Gyneth vanished from their sight.'

Again; the first appearance, or rather the first re-appearance, of the Castle of St. John might furnish matter for the pencil:

> 'De Vaux had marked the sun-beams set,
> At eve, upon the coronet
> Of that enchanted mound,
> And seen but crags at random flung,
> That, o'er the brawling torrent hung,
> In desolation frown'd.
> What sees he by that meteor's lour?—
> A bannered Castle, Keep, and Tower,
> Returns the lurid gleam;

* Why will the author make *De Vaux* rhyme to *rouke*?

With battled walls and buttress fast,
And barbican, and ballium vast,
And airy flanking towers, that cast
Their shadows on the stream.
'Tis no deceit! distinctly clear
Crenell and parapet appear,
While o'er the pile that meteor drear
Makes momentary pause;
Then forth its solemn path it drew,
And fainter yet and fainter grew
Those gloomy towers upon the view,
As its wild light withdraws.'

The *Walter-Scotticisms* of this passage are numerous and manifest. — As in the tournament-scene we discover the *herald*, we here see the *architect* of poetry; and, in spite of the life and precision of these minute pictures, we are sometimes disposed to remember the musty proverb which admonishes *the artist to conceal his art*, and are tempted to exclaim, (we believe, with many other readers,) "A truce with your technicalities, good Master Minstrel!"

In making one more selection from this poem, we shall quote a passage of much force and vivacity. The adventurous De Vaux has thrown aside all his armour and arms except his sword, in order to swim across the moat that encircles the castle: where, having penetrated into the inner courts, and ascended a stair-case at the top of which his farther passage is barred by an arched portal gate,

'The gallant Knight took earnest view
That grated wicket-window through.
'Oh for his arms! Of martial weed
Had never mortal Knight such need! —
He spied a stately gallery; all
Of snow-white marble was the wall,
The vaulting, and the floor;
And, contrast strange! on either hand
There stood array'd, in sable band,
Four maids whom Afric bore;
And each a Lybian tyger led,
Held by as bright and frail a thread
As Lucy's golden hair,
For the leash that bound these monsters dread
Was but of gossamer.
Each maiden's short barbaric vest
Left all enclosed the knee and breast,
And limbs of shapely jet;
White was their vest and turban's fold,
On arms and ancles rings of gold
In savage pomp were set;

A quiver

A quiver on their shoulders lay,
And in their hand an assagay.
Such and so silent stood they there,
That Roland well nigh hoped
He saw a band of statues rare,
Stationed the gazer's soul to scare;
But, when the wicket oped,
Each grisely beast 'gan upward draw,
Roll'd his grim eye, and spread his claw,
Scented the air, and licked his jaw;
While these weird maids, in Moorish tongue,
A wild and dismal warning sung.

'"Rash adventurer, bear thee back!
Dread the spell of Dahomay!
Fear the race of Zaharak,
Daughters of the burning day!

'"When the whirlwind's gusts are wheeling,
Our's it is the dance to braid;
Zarah's sands in pillars reeling,
Join the measure that we tread,
When the Moon hath don'd her cloak,
And the stars are red to see,
Shrill when pipes the sad Siroc,
Music meet for such as we.

'"Where the shatter'd columns lie,
Shewing Carthage once had been,
If the wandering Santon's eye
Our mysterious rites hath seen,—
Oft he cons the prayer of death,
To the nations preaches doom,
'Azrael's brand hath left the sheath!
Moslems, think upon the tomb!'—

'"Our's the scorpion, our's the snake,
Our's the hydra of the fen,
Our's the tyger of the brake,
All that plagues the sons of men.
Our's the tempest's midnight wrack,
Pestilence that wastes by day—
Dread the race of Zaharak!
Fear the spell of Dahomay!"'—

Here we must close our quotations and our remarks, with the exception of a few verbal criticisms.—In a passage cited above, such a line as

'Vanoc's death must now be *wroken*'

cannot have escaped notice; and the affectation of describing heaps of gold in the following language must not pass uncensured:

——'There in ingots piled, and there
Coined badge of empery it bare.'—

The mixture of familiarity and finery, in the subjoined stanza, comprizes nearly all the faults (and that is saying much) of the *New-Old-Ballad* style of poetry:

'That bower, the gazer to bewitch,
Had wondrous store of rare and rich
As e'er was seen with eye;
For there by magic skill, I wis,
Form of each living thing that is
Was limn'd in proper dye.'

It is strange and pitiful that this farrago should be produced by an author who could also write so naturally and impressively as he has written, in the lines with which we shall leave him to make his bow to the reader:

'But why pursue the common tale?
Or wherefore shew how knights prevail
When ladies dare to hear?
Or wherefore trace, from what slight cause
Its source one tyrant passion draws,
Till, mastering all within,
Where lives the man that has not tried,
How mirth can into folly glide,
And folly into sin!'

We have heard a report of the name of the author of this poem, but we do not know that the accuracy of the statement would warrant us in repeating it.

ART. III. *Some Account of the Abbey Church of St. Alban's* illustrative of the Plans, Elevations, and Sections of that Building. Imperial Folio. Printed for the Society of Antiquaries, and sold at their Apartments. Price 6l. 6s.

WE have great pleasure in announcing the progress made by the Society of Antiquaries, in their laudable design 'of publishing accurate measures of all the principal Ecclesiastical Buildings of England.' This undertaking, when completed, will be eminently magnificent, highly honourable to the Society, and advantageous to the arts; and it will constitute a publication of which the British people may be proud. The letter-press of the volume before us, which is beautiful, is given on a page measuring 26¼ inches by 19½; and the plates exhibiting the plans, elevations, &c. are executed in a style of superior neatness and elegance. It is impossible for the artist or the amateur to survey them without expressions of satisfaction; and we

we should suppose that they will essentially contribute to an accurate knowlege of that magically-imposing style of architecture, called Gothic. As, moreover, our religious edifices of this description are rapidly falling into decay, it is very desirable to obtain correct and measured drawings of all their members and decorations; and the enthusiasm with which this object has been prosecuted by certain individuals merits the warmest praise. The late Richard Gough, Esq., the celebrated editor of Camden's Britannia, was devoted to this pursuit. At his expence, the engravings illustrating the account of the Abbey Church of St. Alban were executed, and by him they were generously presented to the Society. They were made from drawings taken by Mr. John Carter, who, together with Mr. Gough, attentively surveyed this antient and venerable building. The advertisement farther informs us that 'the superintendance of this work has been intrusted by the Council to Sir Henry Englefield, Bart., who carefully revised the whole through the press; and that Mr. Gough's notes, which at his death were left imperfect, have been completed by the assistance of James Brown and John Nichols, Esq., members of the Society.'

Among our ecclesiastical edifices, the Abbey Church of St. Alban, the English proto-martyr, certainly occupies a distinguished place; as well on account of its materials and various architecture, as for its antiquity, size, and beauty. Its length surpasses that of Winchester-cathedral (the longest cathedral in the kingdom) by 46 feet; Winchester measuring 554 feet from north to south, and St. Alban's abbey 600 feet; and though at present it is despoiled of much of its beauty, sufficient remains to prove that, previously to the Dissolution, the Catholic religion was here displayed in its richest magnificence. The topography and history of this church are curious; and, as great pains have been taken by the editors to ascertain facts and dates, we shall oblige our readers by transcribing some parts of the account.

* In what Mr. Camden calls the more antient and interior parts of the county of Hertford, twelve miles west from Hertford, five from Bishop's Hatfield, and twenty-one from London, was VEROLAMIUM, or as Tacitus, VERULAMIUM, or as Ptolemy, ΟΥΡΟΛΑΝΙΟΝ, which names are still retained in that of *Verulam*; which Humphrey Llwyd interprets *Gwerllan*, the temple of the Ver. The Saxons called it *Werlamceaster*, and from the Roman road Watling-street, which ran on its south side, *Watlingaceaster*. It stood on a hill gently sloping to the east, fortified with very strong walls, a double and even triple rampart, and deep ditches to the south; on the east a single immense ditch, and bank within; and defended on the west by a single bank, a large terrace within the wall, and on the north by the river

Ver, antiently forming a large marsh called Fishpool, now confined for the accommodation of a mill, formerly belonging to the Abbey. It is supposed that it is the city or fortress of Cassibelan * fortified by woods and marshes, and forced by Cæsar, who does not mention its name. In Nero's time it ranked as a *municipium*, as enjoying the privileges of Roman citizenship, and the holding of public offices in the state. In this emperor's reign, Boadicea, Queen of the *Iceni*, destroyed the place, then esteemed a principal city. It recovered from this calamity, and rose to the highest eminence. We hear, however, nothing particular about it till the introduction of Christianity into the dominions of Rome. Then it gave protection to *Alban*, a man eminent for his sanctity and steady adherence to the faith, for which he suffered martyrdom on a hill covered with wood, and afterwards by a church erected to his memory, which Bede describes as of excellent workmanship. Germanus, Bishop of Auxerre, and Lupus, Bishop of Troyes, held a synod here, A. D. 429, to confute the Pelagian heresy. In honour of the first of these a chapel was erected without the walls on the north, now totally destroyed. Verulam came not long after into the hands of the Saxons, but was retaken by the Britons, and again reverted to the Saxons. While it remained ruined by these wars, Offa, King of Mercia, founded, as a poor atonement for the murder of his son-in-law, A.D. 793, on *Holmhurst*, the woody hill before mentioned, a spacious monastery in honour of Christ and of Saint Alban, whose remains had been discovered there, and a town soon arose around it. The church was royally endowed, and enjoyed many privileges and immunities, particularly an exemption from the apostolic tax called *Romescot*, which the abbot collected and applied to his own use, and had episcopal authority over all the clergy and laity of its estates; and as Saint Alban was proto-martyr so his abbot ranked first among the abbots of England.'

We shall see, in the course of this article, the state and magnificence which were preserved by this abbot, the pretended servant of the meek and humble Jesus; and if we attend to the immense sums expended on sacred structures, on the decorations of the shrines of saints, and on the clergy, we shall perceive that religion, or rather a splendid superstition, engrossed the attention and became the darling pursuit of the people. On cathedrals and collegiate churches, more treasure was lavished than on the palaces of kings; and sovereigns were insulted and degraded in order to gratify the pride of the priesthood. Our cathedrals, which are monuments of the domineering influence of the Catholic religion over the minds of the people, manifest not less judgment than taste, considered in their singular adaptation to the ceremonies and processions of

* Milton calls St. Alban's "*jugera Cassibelauni*," Epitaph. Dam. *Rev.*

the

the Catholic ritual: but to the unostentatious character of Protestantism they are not suited, and seem now to be immense bodies with departed souls. For the structure of the Abbey of St. Alban, it is probable that many Roman edifices were demolished, since Roman bricks are traced in every part of the church, which are here supposed to have been furnished by the materials of the old city of Verulam. The revenues of this monastic institution were estimated at 2,102*l. per annum*, a considerable sum in those days: the abbey-church was purchased at the suppression by the mayor and burgesses for 400*l.*; and by the interest of Sir Thomas Pope with the King, this noble Saxon (or rather Saxo-Norman) church was preserved. Its component parts are thus specified:

'The transepts and tower, with the upper half of the north aile of the nave, are of the Norman style of Henry I. The beautiful western arches of the nave, with its south aile, and the rest of the north aile, and the west porch, probably built by Abbot Roger, are of the time of Edward I. The choir is to be referred to the reign of Henry III.; and the Lady-Chapel, now converted into a school, was built by Abbot Hugo de Eversden, soon after 1308.' [Or in the reign of Edward II.] 'The whole fabrick was greatly beautified by Abbot Wheathamsted, in the reign of Henry VI. The rich front of the altar was the work of Abbot Wallingford, between 1476 and 1484. His successor Thomas Ramryge, who died 1524, has an elegant light sepulchral chapel on the north side of the choir, opposite to the plainer tomb of Wheathamsted; near which last is a most rich brass, that lay over Abbot de la Mare; and half another for Abbot Stoke, who died 1451. On the south side of the presbytery, the space between the high altar and the Lady-Chapel, where stood the shrine of Saint Alban, marked by six holes in the pavement, is a rich sepulchral chapel, erected by Abbot Wheathamsted for his friend and patron Humphrey Duke of Gloucester, uncle of King Henry VI., and supposed to have been the victim of court intrigues. His corpse was found in the beginning of the last century in perfect preservation, embalmed in a kind of pickle, inclosed in coffins of lead and wood: but now only a few of the bones and the lead are left, and a crucifix painted at the foot of the vault.'—

'The shrine of Saint Alban, behind the high altar, where the six holes mark its pillars, was most richly adorned with gold, silver, and precious stones, by Offa and other benefactors. In the centre of the ceiling of the north transept, among coats of arms held by angels, is a painting of his martyrdom, and on the wall over the arch of the north aile of the choir, is a wretched daubing of Offa, seated on his throne, crowned, and holding his sceptre, and under him these two lines:

"*Quem malè depictum et residentem cernitis altè*
Sublimem solio, Mercius Offa fuit."

—'The church consists of a nave, with two ailes, two transepts, a space between the nave and choir (or anti-choir or baptistry), separated from the former by a rich screen; a choir with two ailes, open-

ing by two lofty pointed arches into a chapel or presbytery; beyond which eastward is the Lady-Chapel, and between them is now a common thoroughfare.

'The whole church from east to west is 600 feet, whereof from the west door to the high altar is 411 feet; from thence, including the chapel of the shrine, to the east end of the Lady-Chapel, is 189 feet. The breadth of the transept is nearly 32 feet; its extreme length 174; of the nave, with its ailes, 74 feet and a half; the height of the nave 65 feet, and of the tower 144.

'The eleven eastern arches of the nave seem coeval with the tower and transepts, being, like them, of Saxon work *. Three of these arches on each side are taken into the anti-choir, and are all of them round, of three sweeps; the pillars massive and irregular, and composed of rubble work and Roman bricks, and covered with a coat of plaster. The middle story has over each one elliptical arch with windows of three demi-quatrefoil days, and the upper arches are round and long.'—'The remaining arches below, nine on the north and ten on the south side, are pointed, and the pillars octagon, composed of a round and square shaft alternately. The nunneries above all these are divided into two days resting on triple round pillars, of which the middle cloister has fine flowered capitals.'—

The most western window of the south aile is said to have been filled with verses, which are now chiefly obliterated: but some remain, which bear the date of 1623; and, as they not only relate a circumstance in the legendary history of the saint, but are characteristic of the quaint poetry of the age (James I.) in which they were written, we shall transcribe them:

"This image of our frailty, painted glass
Shews where the life and death of Alban was,
A knight beheads the martyr, but so soon
His eyes drop out to see what he has done.
And leaving their own head, seem with a teare
To wail the other head lay mangled there.
Because before his eyes no teares would shed,
His eyes themselves like teares fall from his head.
O bloody fact, the whiles Saint Alban dies,
The murderer himself weeps out his eyes.
[In zeal to heaven, where holy Alban's bones
Were buried, Offa raised this heap of stones;
Which, after by devouring Time abused,
Into the dying parts had life infused
By James the First of England] †, to become
[The glory of Alban's] protomartyrdom."

* The latter are before stated to be in the *Norman* style. How are these dissonances to be reconciled? *Rev.*

† This part of the inscription refers to the reparation of the church by brief in the year 1623.

Not

Not for their beauty, but for the rudeness and simplicity of their construction, we must notice the older pillars of the nave, which are probably of Saxon workmanship; consisting of 'an assemblage of materials from Verulam, cemented in one mass, and covered with a thick coat of plaster. — These pillars are square or round, just as the materials could be united together, and have neither base nor capitals.' When these rude vestiges of antiquity are contrasted with the elegant specimens of Norman architecture with which this church was embellished at a subsequent period, we are tempted to express some surprize that these rude mis-shapen masses, which do not at all harmonize with the other parts of the building, were suffered to remain. — The account proceeds to notice the screen of the anti-choir, and the altar-piece of improved Gothic work; behind which was the shrine of the Saint, standing on a stone-border, on which is inscribed, in modern characters, *S. Albanus Verolamensis, Anglorum Proto-martyr*, xvii *Junii* ccxcvii. A description is also given of the Lady-Chapel; of the square tower in the centre of the church, with the towers at the angles; of the remains of the cloisters, the site of which is ascertained by eight arches and a door-way, which range along the south side of the nave; of the great west window, &c.: but, for particulars on these subjects, we must refer the curious reader to the splendid pages before us.

A second division of the work is intitled *Monuments and Epitaphs*, which may furnish much matter for a county-history, but will not be generally interesting. Among these transcripts from tomb-stones, and tablets, we find a list of the abbots of St. Alban's Abbey, (forty in number,) the first of whom was Willegod, who died in 794; and the last, Richard Boreman de Stevenache, who surrendered the abbey in 1539, who had a yearly pension of 400 marks for life, and is said to have purchased the church in order to save it from destruction: but we know not how this statement can be made to agree with the account already given, that it was purchased by the mayor and burgesses of St. Alban's. This list of the abbots is followed by a sketch of the princely state displayed by these dignified ecclesiastics, and with which we have promised to entertain our readers:

'Pope Adrian IV., surnamed Breakspeare, born at Abbots-Langley in this neighbourhood, constituted the Abbot of St. Alban's first abbot in England in order and dignity, in 1154, as St. Alban was the English Protomartyr. Pope Honorius, in 1218, confirmed to the Abbot, and his successors, episcopal rights, and exempted them from the jurisdiction of the Bishop of Lincoln, their diocesan.

'Of

'Of the state in which the abbots of this opulent monastery lived, we may judge from the following account by Mr. Robert Shrimpton, who was three times mayor of the town, and died in the beginning of the seventeenth century. He lived when the Abbey flourished, before the Dissolution, and remembered most things relating to the buildings of the Abbey, the regimen of the house, the ceremonies of the church, and grand processions; of all which he would often discourse. Among other things, that in the great hall there was an ascent of fifteen steps to the Abbot's table, to which the monks brought up the service on plate, and, staying at every fifth step as a landing-place, sung a short hymn. The Abbot usually sat alone, in the middle of the table; and when any nobleman, or ambassador, or stranger of eminent quality, came thither, they sat at the table towards the ends thereof. After the monks had waited a while on the Abbot, they sat down at two other tables placed on the sides of the hall, and had their services brought in by the novices, who, when the monks had dined, sat down to their own table.'

Nineteen plates embellish this volume, with accompanying illustrations. The first (the ornamental title-page) 'is a view (looking east) in the porch on the left of the centre ditto of the west front entering into the north aile of the Abbey.' No. II. contains, on a large scale, a plan of the church, and of the site of the monastical buildings that were once attached to it, with references to every particular that is worth notice. III. Elevation of the west front, which is evidently a made-up piece of architecture, previous to or soon after the Dissolution. IV. Elevation of the south front, containing some Saxon architecture: but the most striking feature in this elevation is 'Our Lady's Chapel, the design of which remains very complete, which with its buttresses, windows, and their varied tracery, entablature, parapet, &c., strongly denote the style of the fourteenth century, a period when our antient architecture flourished in its utmost splendour, under the patronage of that august monarch Edward the Third.' V. Longitudinal section, (from west to east,) presenting the north side of the interior of the church. 'This range exhibits most of the orders of architecture, from the earliest Saxon down to that of the Tudor construction.' It is here remarked that nothing remains 'of the antient wood-decorations to the church, such as stalls, reading desks, pulpit, &c., except the amburies, and oratory over them, in St. Alban's feretory, whereon are some of the finest carvings in oak, of the legend of St. Alban, diversified foliage, and elaborate traceries.' VI. Transverse section, (from north to south,) presenting the east side of the transepts of the interior, the elevation of which is wholly Saxon. To these general views, succeed specimens of the architecture in detail. Plate VII. exhibits parts of the west front, drawn to a larger scale; as the double entrance into the

the nave, and the north side of the porch. VIII. Seventh division of the nave on the south front, with the internal arches of the north cloister, springings of the groins, &c. IX. Fourth division of the choir on the south front. X. Divisions on the eastern part of the south front. XI. Third division internally of the nave (style, thirteenth century). XII. Sixth division internally of the nave (Saxon work). On this portion of the church it is remarked that, 'taking the upright in its principal lines, exclusive of the window-introductions in the two first stories, a plain and uniform grandeur is expressed, and the proportions of each part happily maintained. It may be allowed that the architecture here presented, by its near affinity to the Roman manner, is one of the earliest specimens of the labours of our Saxon architects, whether ecclesiastics or professional men, in that branch of science.' XIII. First division internally of the north transept (Saxon work). XIV. First division internally of the choir (style, fifteenth century). XV. exhibits divisions of the double eastern aile of the choir; three recesses of the grand avenue; north side of the upper loft of the centre tower, which is Saxon work, constructed entirely of Roman bricks of various sizes; and an example of the newel, or central column round which the stairs of the tower wind, which, like every other part of the Saxon portions of the church, 'is done with Roman bricks,' and which shews that the ruins of Verulam must have furnished them in great abundance. Examples, also, of columns to the galleries of the north and south transepts are given in this plate. XVI. Elevation of St. Cuthbert's altar-screen, or entrance into the choir, (style, fourteenth century,) an admirable work of antient art, which on the whole is in fine preservation. XVII. Elevation of the high altar-screen; 'the design of which is, beyond dispute, one of the most splendid works of the kind remaining in this kingdom.' XVIII. and XIX. contain various specimens of the external and internal sculptures, and of the paintings which decorate this abbey-church; such as busts, consoles, shields, capitals, spandrils, entablatures, grotesque figures, angels with shields of arms, enrichments on the band-mouldings, monagram of the name of Jesus, ditto of the Trinity, painting of Offa, the abbey-arms, very antient Saxon seal of St. Alban in a *vesica piscis*, &c. &c.

From the above enumeration, it will be seen that nothing has escaped the notice of the diligent antiquaries who were employed in exploring the Abbey-church of St. Alban; that no expence has been spared in preparing this account of it for the public; and that artists may consult it with confidence as an accurate delineation of the different styles of architecture which this celebrated edifice exhibits.

ART.

ART. IV. *Statistical Survey of the County of Antrim*; with Observations on the Means of Improvement; drawn up for the Consideration, and by Direction, of the Dublin Society. By the Rev. John Dubourdieu, Rector of Annahilt. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 742. Printed in Dublin.

WHATEVER is calculated to display the resources and stimulate the industry of a country must infallibly contribute to its benefit. It is an old maxim in trade, that "God helps those who help themselves;" and it may with equal truth be observed that governments are ready to lend a helping hand to those portions of their empire, of which the inhabitants are disposed to make efforts for the amelioration of their own condition. Much as our sister-island has been neglected, we are pleased to find that she is now becoming sensible of her capabilities; so that we may reasonably conclude that a proper representation of her exertions and growing prosperity will incline our rulers to second her endeavours. If Ireland be in several respects behind England, the reason may easily be assigned: but, instead of adverting to her past treatment, it is better to speculate on the future by presenting those views of sound policy which are essential to her comfort and advancement. As far as that advancement is concerned which consists in an amelioration of the soil, and in a spirited application of natural advantages, we think that County-Surveys, on the plan of that which is before us, must operate in a very beneficial manner. A country like Ireland requires, perhaps, more than any other part of the United Kingdom, the diffusion of statistical instruction; and as *knowlege*, of this kind, *is* certainly *power*, its inhabitants, in proportion as they are made acquainted with the means which Providence has placed within their reach and with the benefits which result from the use of them, will naturally be prompted to mutual emulation in the career of improvement. One spirited agriculturist, manufacturer, or merchant, sets an example which operates on his countrymen; and they no sooner perceive the fruits of his genius and exertions than they prepare to follow him. If one man converts a bog into fertile fields, if another establishes a manufactory by which habits of industry are introduced among the neighbouring poor, and if a third builds ships to bring home the materials of which the manufacturer is in want, and to export the produce of his own country to foreign states, the community must necessarily feel the benefits of such undertakings. Society will then wear a new aspect; with the means of subsistence, population will increase, towns and villages will assume an appearance of superior comfort, and the condition of the poor will be improved. It should seem, from the extensive emigration of the Irish, that the case of the poor

in our sister-island has not been sufficiently regarded, and that her population at large is not put on the best footing. *When necessity presses too hardly on the poor, they cease to have a country.* The picture which has been drawn of the Irish cotter, in some districts, is melancholy in the extreme; and we should be happy to hear that some system of agricultural improvement was projected, by which his situation could be generally amended. It is to be hoped that a new mode of distributing and of cultivating the soil will introduce new comforts to the laborious cultivator; and that the country, in all its ramifications, will reap the advantage which such disquisitions as are contained in the pages before us are designed to generate.

In his statistical survey of the county of Antrim, Mr. Dubourdieu embraces a much wider range than is common in our County-Reports; and we have followed him with pleasure through its several departments. He seems to have taken great pains in collecting information, and he every where details it with a patriotic spirit, anxious to inspire all classes of the Irish people with a sense of the importance of doing justice to themselves, by turning their many natural advantages to the best account. He endeavours also to interest the political arithmetician, the naturalist, and the antiquary, in his researches; and we are confident that all readers, who are sollicitous for the prosperity of Ireland, will derive satisfaction from the present work.

The report commences as usual with a description of the geographical situation, extent, and divisions (as well ecclesiastical as civil) of the county of Antrim; a part of which it is proper for us to extract:

'The county of Antrim is a maritime county, which presents a considerable line of coast to the northern ocean, and to the Irish channel; by the former it is bounded to the north; by the latter to the east; Carrickfergus bay and the river Lagan form its limits to the south-east, dividing it from the county of Down as far to the south as Spencer's bridge. To the south-west it has the same county, which running to a point meets Lough Neagh at Shanport. To the west it has the winding shores of Lough Neagh, and Lough Beg, until it meets the river Bann, issuing from the latter; from thence this river, taking a northerly course inclining to the west, separates Antrim from Londonderry, and with the Liberties of Coleraine completes its circuit.

'The county of Antrim lies between 54°—26′ and 55°—12′—16″ north latitude; its greatest length is from Benmore head north, to Spencer's bridge south, and is, according to Mr. Lendrick's map, 41¼ Irish miles. Its greatest breadth from the Gobbins east, to Island Reagh Toome west, is about 24 miles. The superficial contents, from the same authority, are 420,999 Irish acres.

'This county contains eight baronies; their contents in Irish acres are as follow:—Barony of Dunluce, 56,320; Carey, 45,360; Killconway,

way, 38,569; Gleharm, 50,240; Toome, 48,160; Antrim, 67,520; Belfast, 65,920; Masserene, 48,960.

'According to these divisions all taxes upon the county at large are apportioned.'—

'The minor civil divisions are half baronies, constablewicks, and townlands. This last division must have been of a very early date: for, the names are nearly all Irish and expressive of the qualities of the land, or descriptive of some circumstance that relates to them. These townlands cannot be the same as those mentioned by Sir James Ware, as affording pasture for 300 cows, which being divided into four herds, none of the herds could see each other. There is another division of land mentioned in the patent of Charles the First to the Antrim family, viz. Touagh; this has been supposed a district similar to our barony; but that could not be the case, for the Glynnes are here said to contain seven Touaghs; but it has already been shewn, that the Glynnes only contain the barony of Glenarm and part of Carey. Many of the names still remain, and give a kind of vague denomination to parts of the country, but they have no exact definition as to any county regulations. Cinament, another antient denomination, is said to be derived from an Irish word which Ware calls Cine, but which I am informed is more properly spelled Cineim, a family; this appears to have been the land appropriated to the residence of a family, as the signification of the word implies, and in modern language might be termed a demesne. Ploughlands were instituted in the reign of Philip and Mary; according to them certain taxes were paid. They were rated at 100 acres; this division is now quite laid aside.

'The bishopric of Connor comprehends the whole county of Antrim, (and also the liberties of Coleraine,) except the parish of Aghalee, or Soldierstown, in the barony of Masserene, which is in the diocese of Dromore, and the parish or grange of Ballicullen, which belongs to the diocese of Derry.

'The dignitaries are the bishop, dean, archdeacon, chancellor, treasurer, precentor, and four prebends. The dean is appointed by the crown, and holds the rectories of Island Magee, Carrickfergus, Larne, Inver, Raloo, and Moylusk. The archdeacon is appointed by the bishop, and holds the rectorial tithes of Ardmoy, Billy, Donegore, Killbride, and Ballyclug.

'The chancellor is named by the bishop, and holds the rectorial tithes of Glenarm, with Teckmacreevan, Ramoan, Culfaghtrin, Loughgule, Ballywillan, and Ballyrashane.

'The treasurer is appointed by the bishop, and holds the rectories of Ballyaghran and Ardclinnis.

'The precentor holds the rectory of Ballymoney together with the rectorial tythes of Dunluce, and is also appointed by the bishop.

'1st, The prebend of Connor holds the vicarage of Connor with Killagan, which is a rectory, but no tithe has been paid for some time. 2d. The prebend of Rathsharkin holds the chief parts of the rectories of Rathsharkin, Finvoy, Killraghts, and Killdallock. 3d. The prebend of Carncastle holds the rectories of Carncastle, St. Caning, Killwalter, Rashee, (i. e. Ballycasten and Ballycor,) and Derryheighan, 4th. The

4th. The prebend of Killroot holds the vicarages of Templecurran and Ballynure. The prebends are appointed by the bishop.'

After having thus sketched the outlines and divisions of the district which falls under his review, Mr. D. proceeds to notice the climate, soil, surface, subsoil, and different minerals and fossils, which occur in the county of Antrim. Of these, basalt occupies the most eminent place; and the immense columns of this substance at the northern extremity of the county, known by the name of the Giants'-causeway, with those detached basaltic swells or whin-dykes which are found within land, have occupied the attention of geologists, who continue to be much divided in opinion respecting their origin. Mr. D. has allotted many pages to this subject; and Dr. Richardson, in the Appendix, has entered still more largely into the controversy, contending vehemently against those who maintain the volcanic origin of basalt, and producing the zeolite, which is found imbedded in the largest blocks of basalt, in confirmation of his opinion: but, as it is possible that the zeolite might have been a subsequent formation, we are not satisfied with the accuracy of Dr. R.'s conclusions. When, in another letter, he proceeds to argue that the whole county of Antrim may have once been an immence block of basalt, of which only certain prominent peaks or projections remain, and that the basaltic subtance which once filled the vallies, or hollows, between the present eminences, has been actually carried away, we demur to his theory, or his step towards a theory. Is it not more likely that the vallies, which intervene between one basaltic ridge and another, were formed by a subsidence of a part of the great mass; and that in subsiding it turned over, in a great measure, so as to hide the basalt which was once at the top, and to present the lime-stone which was originally under it? We mean not to enter the lists with Dr. R. on this point: but we may surely ask him whether this supposition be not more probable than that of 'the diminution of the surface of the county of Antrim, with the total loss of the materials which composed it?'—Leaving geologists to settle the question how the Giants'-causeway became placed at the north of Ireland, we must observe that it ranks among our most stupendous natural phænomena; and, as the colonnades of Staffa have been preferred by some tourists to those of the Antrim pillars, we commend Dr. R. for displaying a little national vanity on the occasion, and for adducing facts to prove that, if comparisons must be instituted, they will be in favour of his own colonnade: 'I do not wish,' says he, 'to derogate from the beauty, nor to depreciate the grandeur of the Staffa colonnades; but, as Mr. Pennant institutes the comparsion, I must tell him that, while the longest pillar

at Staffa is 55 feet, ours at Fair-head are 250. The continuous colonnade at Fair-head is longer than the whole island of Staffa; and the colonnade at Bengore three times as long, and one of its two parallel ranges of pillars equal to the solitary range in Staffa.

'Though I never saw Staffa, I may fairly pronounce our façades to be far more stupendous; for the highest point in the island of Staffa is but 126 feet above the level of the sea, while Pleskin, scarcely higher than the rest of the façade, is 370; and the uniform columnar range of Fair-head 550.'

Besides basalt, calcareous lime-stone, gypsum, alabaster, coals, fossil-wood, or wood-coal *, sand-stone, &c., are enumerated in the section on minerals: but we must pass over these topics, and the account of the natural history of Lough Neagh, including the birds which frequent it, its fish and fisheries, mineral waters, &c., though the reporter has collected much curious matter relative to this department of his survey.—The objects in natural history peculiar to the county of Antrim, Dr. Richardson says, are

'1st, Basalt, arranged in beautiful colonnades, the pillars formed of prismatic joints, executed with extreme neatness.

'2d. Whyn-dykes, those stupendous walls, which, issuing from the interior of Antrim, and diverging in all directions, are first discovered on the coast, where they cut through the precipices lining it, and bury themselves in the sea, without any great intermissions, for a length of near sixty Irish miles.

'3d. Basaltic hummocks, generally stratified, scattered over the whole face of Antrim, and of all magnitudes, from the gigantic mountain down to the most diminutive hillock.

'4th The arrangement and alternations of our strata, so happily disclosed in Antrim, as to enable us to penetrate farther into the secrets of nature, than she has suffered to be done in any other country.'

* This substance is curious as explanatory of the origin of coal; though it is difficult to conceive how wood can have been so compressed as we find the strata or veins of coal. The Rev. R. Trail thus writes to Mr. D.:

"In most places, where I have observed this substance, columns of basalt are placed over it. In my own quarry on the glebe it is to be found underneath twenty feet of solid rock, in a compressed state, or flattened appearance; the outward edges, however, have preserved, in many instances, a degree of roundness, and I have heard of some pieces being got perfectly round as in their original shape. The bark and knots are quite distinct, and you may reckon the rings of its annual growth. I have even seen the roots of the trees, and distinctly traced the ramifications, where they were not covered with basalt, and could readily perceive that they had been laid down by some force pressing against them, precisely like trees blown down by a storm."

On

On the subjects of estates, houses of proprietors, and cottages, Mr. D. gives rather a pleasing statement; and it is to be wished that his account would apply to every part of Ireland. Of estates, he remarks that

'They are in general freehold; for they are either immediate grants from the crown, or held under those grants. The exceptions are the properties under the See of Connor. Some of these estates are very great, as the Marquis of Hertford's, the Marquis of Donegal's, the Earl of O'Neil's, and the Antrim estate, which includes the northern baronies; the latter, however, being mostly set in perpetuity, is now in the possession of respectable country gentlemen. These are, besides, a number of other respectable properties, in different parts of the county, as well belonging to the nobility as to the gentlemen.'

The reporter offers no information on the subject of rents; observing that, over a large county, this is a most difficult matter to ascertain, since that which would be a moderate price for an acre of land in one situation would be most exorbitant for one of equal quality in another: yet, though this remark may be correct as applying to a single acre near a large town, and to one at a distance in the country, we should suppose that a tolerable average might be made of the rents of considerable estates, or of large holdings. A manufacturer may be willing to pay a large rent for a field which lies contiguous to his dwelling, but this cannot be supposed to regulate the price given by the professed farmer. As it will be seen by the following extract that the farmer, as well as the proprietor, is comfortably lodged, we should expect to find the country-price of land tolerably ascertained: but neither on this head nor on that of expence and profit does the reporter appear to have obtained any satisfactory information.

'Nothing tends more to improve a country than the residence of enlightened proprietors; nothing embellishes it more than their habitations. Though there are few splendid houses, there are many characterised by convenience and elegance belonging to this rank in society. In addition to these must be mentioned that most respectable class, who are diffused over the great estates, but whose property in them is only leasehold; it is a striking and a pleasing sight to see what is done by them, wherever they have had encouragement to settle and improve, for these are synonimous terms. Yet the pleasure, that results from contemplating this subject, is fully equalled by the view of that comfort, in which the inferior occupiers of the land live, which is daily increasing; within these last thirty years, more has been done in this way than in the century which preceded it.

'The houses of the farmers, though in general not more than one story, nor very spacious, are neat and warm, often roughcast and whitened; the windows sashed, and with the doors painted; covered with a good coat of thatch, and in many instances slated; and with

one or two rooms floored. When the circumstances of the farmer enable him, and the size of his farm justifies him in doing it, there is often a second story. The offices of a farm-house consist of a stable, according with the number of horses required, a cow-house of the same capacity, and a barn sufficient to contain a stack of grain such as the owner thinks fit; to these may always be added a house for one or more pigs, a shed for his calves, and in many instances an open house to contain turf, cars, and other farming implements, to protect them, when not in use, from the inclemency of the weather. I do not take upon me to say, that this picture is universal; there are exceptions not only in single instances, but in particular parts, where things are not so well; but I could point out roads of many miles in extent, where the picture I have drawn would be realised. The materials, of which the farm-houses are constructed, in most instances, are stone, as excellent quarries of basalt are to be met with through the greatest part of the county. These stones, when neatly put together, as they are, form a good contrast with the whiteness of the mortar; and, as they stand the hammer, make a permanent and dry wall. In the district of Malone, and in some other situations where stones are difficult to be obtained, very comfortable houses have been built of clay; but that mode of building is now nearly out of practice, brick being substituted in its room.

'The cottages of labourers and weavers, as well as of the other tradesmen who do not possess land, are inferior to the houses of the farmer; but still, as the others have improved, these have also improved; the general circumstances of the country have imparted to them a share of comfort; great attention has been paid by many gentlemen to the accommodation of their farming servants, by having for them comfortable habitations; the good sense as well as the humanity of this is evident, for, the more they perceive themselves to be objects of interest to their employers, the more attached they will be to them; besides the general feeling of a change for the worse in the event of misbehaviour.'

It is a peculiarity of the linen-manufacture established in Ireland, that it does not remove the peasant from the comforts and healthiness of rural life: here we find the weaver and the labourer on the soil united in the same person, who is sometimes at his loom and at others assisting the farmer, especially in times of hurry. Hence the Antrim rural cottages are of a better class than those in other parts of the island. By the double resource from labour within doors and labour without, the poor are here placed in a comfortable state; and, as Mr. D. has done us the honour of quoting our remarks on the importance of fostering habits of neatness and regularity among the poor, we shall, in return for his civility, compliment him on his humane attention to the case of the industrious poor, which ought to occupy the particular consideration of every man who truly desires the permanent prosperity of his country. We shall see, when we come to notice the linen and the cotton manufactories,

nufactories, that the circumstances under which the former is conducted contribute much more than those of the latter to the virtue, health, and comforts of the labourer.

The chapter intitled *Agriculture* includes several sections on the mode of cultivating arable lands, and on the various kinds of crops; on manures, grass-land, hay-making, grazing, and soiling; live stock; dairying; woods and plantations; orchards and gardens; mountains and bogs; draining and irrigation, &c. &c.

Wheat is, in course, the first object here noticed: but we do not think that it is necessary to arrest the attention of our readers by stating any of the details of the Antrim mode of culture. It may, however, be proper to mention that Mr. D. reports that the steeping of the seed is not as much in fashion as it was; and that he affords very strong evidence to prove that the cause of the disease called *Smut* must be sought not in the seed but in some other circumstance.

On account of the Linen-manufacture, Flax is cultivated to a great extent. Some idea may be formed of the quantity raised, by this circumstance, that the annual average of flax-seed imported into Belfast is 5,000 hogsheads, of about seven bushels each: but, though this quantity may exceed the annual consumption, much more is saved by the growers; and in the year 1809, as appears by the bounty awarded, 61,864 bushels were saved.

Vetches or Tares, as a green crop, have not yet found their way into general use in this county; for the reporter informs us that, though he has traversed it in every direction, he does not recollect to have seen one instance of their being grown on any farmer's land. 'The principal feature,' he observes, 'in the tillage-system of a great part of Antrim, is the potatoe-fallow; to which it owes nearly as much as Norfolk does to the turnip-fallow.'

In the section on *the laying down of Ground for Meadow*, the properties of *the agrostis stolonifera*, or *fiorin*, are discussed: but, though Mr. D. is an intimate friend of Dr. Richardson, he does not adopt all that gentleman's opinions respecting this favourite grass. Guided by experience, he arrives at these conclusions; that the fiorin, to be profitably cultivated, 'must have a situation rich either by nature or preparation; and that it is not adapted to a dry soil.'

It has often been a subject of lamentation that the orchards of Great Britain are on the decline; and that, after repeated engraftings, the distinguishing properties of our most valuable apples have nearly disappeared. It has been suggested that the only way of remedying this misfortune is to take the chance of

new varieties; and perhaps it would not be bad policy to avail ourselves of the orchard-produce of our sister-island, in which will probably be discovered some varieties worth importation. As Mr. D. has given us the names of several of these new apples, some of our readers may thank us for the information here detailed:

'Amongst the new kinds, the strawberry, peach, and plumb apples are much esteemed for their beauty and flavour, and the honey-ball likewise; these are summer apples. Of the keeping kinds, the Kerry and Ribston pippins, the red tankard, and Ross nonpareil are reckoned very nice; but the crofton apple, when pulled in proper time and well kept, preserves its freshness and flavour longer than any other. There is an apple now very much cultivated, not only from its being a good bearer of large and well-flavoured fruit, but from the circumstance of its growing from cuttings, and from its having fruit the second or third year; it is known by a variety of names, but it is commonly called the Saul apple, having first made its appearance in the parish of that denomination near Downpatrick. In taking cuttings of this apple, it is necessary to observe those branches, which have rings and small nobs around them, that rise a little above the general surface, somewhat like a knot, and these are the most certain growers; large pieces will also take root, and they bear sooner than the smaller ones. This apple, from the quality it possesses of growing with such facility, and from the size and beauty of its fruit, and the goodness of its taste for several months, is a great acquisition to our gardens, where it grows well on espaliers; and to our orchards, where, when it is grafted, it grows well as a large standard.'

As the walnut-tree seldom ripens its fruit in Antrim, we need have no apprehension respecting the adaptation of the apple-trees of that county to the English climate.

A peculiarity in the Irish mode of making Butter is noticed in the account of the dairying-system; by which it will be seen that the butter-milk, of which the lower Irish are so fond, is a very different beverage from that which is produced in English churns:

'In gathering the milk for churning, nearly the whole quantity that comes from the cow, is strained into large crocks after being cooled, or, if the number of the cows is great, into wooden vessels; when it has acquired a proper degree of activity, which in summer soon happens, the whole is put into the churn; by this means, though a small quantity of butter is obtained from the quantity of fluid, in proportion to that which is obtained from churning the cream alone, yet all the butter contained in the milk is gathered; and the milk having stood a much shorter time than it would require to procure a churn-full of pure cream, the butter is supposed to be much more free from any rancid taste than in the other mode; and the milk (butter-milk), which remains after the operation, not having had time to be in any way corrupted, is a most pleasing wholesome beverage,

beverage, and one of the greatest comforts of life to the Irish farmer, his family, and domestics; it is their common drink at their meals, and when they are dry and weary.'

Bacon is well known to be a considerable article of Irish export. Mr. D. notices this fact, and informs us that, during the salting season of the year 1811, not fewer than 70,000 pigs, weighing at least 200lbs. each, were brought to Belfast for exportation.

From the produce of fields, orchards, dairies, and pig-styes, it is time that we pass to the prolific subject of *Manufactures*, which occupies many pages in the second volume. An inquiry into the origin and a compressed history of the progress of the linen-manufacture are presented to us, some particulars of which we shall transcribe. We are informed that it originated in the east; and the presumption is said to be strengthened by the fact that the word *Indic* signifies linen in the Irish language, to say nothing of many other words employed in this manufacture, which General Vallancey (see Vol. ii. p. 587.) attributes to an eastern root. From Asia it is traced by the aid of the Phœnicians to Carthage and Spain, and thence to the *Green Island*, as the Irish call their native land: but we shall not vouch for the accuracy of this part of remote history. The fact, however, is that, by whatever means the Irish obtained a knowlege of the spindle and the loom, they have for a long period made such good use of them that the linen-manufacture is become as much the staple manufacture of Ireland as the woollen is that of England. It is stated that, in the beginning of the reign of King William, the value of linen exported was only to the amount of 6000l.; that in 1710 not less than 1,688,574 yards were sent abroad; that in 1778 the exportation was 21,945,729 yards; that in 1781 it fell to 14,947,265 yards; but that, after that period, it with some fluctuations advanced, and in the year 1809 amounted to 43,904,442 yards, the total value of which was 5,853,917l. In the year 1811, the exportation is said to have been only 36,846,971 yards, valued at 4,375,577l. We have extracted only a few items from a table which occupies three pages: but these will suffice to shew the progress of the linen-trade, from the beginning of the last century; which, though checked for a time by the American war, happily revived, and is now in a flourishing state. As we have remarked before, the individuals in this trade are not confined to a sedentary employment in unwholesome and crowded apartments, but live scattered over the country, combining rural with manufacturing occupations:

'Many weavers have small farms, and only employ themselves in this way during the intervals of their farming occupations. Many of

them are the sons of farmers, who assist in the work of the land, and then return to the loom; and most of those, who follow this trade, and live in the country, have gardens and ground allowed for setting potatoes; so that few are without some addition to their ostensible calling.—These people, thus living dispersed in the country, are, in general, of a better description than those who live in towns; they are more out of the way of temptation and of bad example.'

This feature of the linen-trade affords us much pleasure; and we wish that the cotton-trade in Great Britain could be prosecuted on a similar system. — Mr. D., however, speaks favourably of the cotton-trade in his country. In the list of manufactures which are making some progress in Ireland, mention is made of the casting, turning, and fluting of iron: but to descant on these processes would give no information to our ingenious artizans on this side of the water.

The section on *Population* exhibits a very considerable increase. In 1788 the county of Antrim was reported to contain only 160,000 inhabitants: but the present amount is stated at 240,000.

We meet in these volumes with a long section, of a character unlike any that is to be found in the British county-reports, viz. on *the Situation, Size, and Description of Towns and Villages.* It is amusing, and will furnish much matter for the formation of an Irish Gazetteer: but we must restrain ourselves from making any other use of its contents than that of copying two extracts on the size and population of Belfast, and on the amount of its exports in 1810:

'From a most accurate survey made by Mr. Arthur Thomson, in 1807, the houses were 3514, the inhabitants 22,095, being in eighteen years an increase of 407 houses, and 3735 inhabitants. It has not been ascertained, what are the numbers of the present day; to all appearance, there has been a considerable addition within the last four years; the supposition is, they amount to 26,000, or thereabouts.

'From the ancient plan, which accompanies this, (but in what year taken is uncertain,) the town then contained only six streets, and four rows of houses. From a survey made in 1808, it was found to contain squares, streets, quays, lanes, and entries, to the number of one hundred and fourteen. In 1791, their number was only seventy-five, being an increase, in seventeen years, of thirty-nine.'

'*Aggregate Account of the principal Exports from Belfast, of Irish Produce and Manufactures during the Year* 1810.

			£	s.	d.
Linen,	15,152,831 yards,	Value,	2,272,924	13	0
Butter,	51,547 firkins,		280,414	10	0
Soap,	3,239 boxes,		6,478	0	0
Tongues,	1,884 kegs,		3,297	0	0
		Carry forward,	2,563,114	3	0

	Brought forward,	£2,563,114	3	0
Oatmeal,	130 tons,	2,340	0	0
Hides,	8,137	16,274	0	0
Linen yarn,	800 cwt.,	12,000	0	0
Oats,	3,822 ditto,	1,911	0	0
Bacon,	63,561 ditto,	206,573	5	0
Cotton yarn,	17,927 lbs.,	4,942	6	0
Wheat,	821 tons,	16,420	0	0
Pork,	17,093 barrels,	91,191	0	0
Candles,	961 boxes,	3,344	0	0
Beef,	8,280 barrels,	37,260	0	0
Calf-skins,	1,851 dozen,	5,553	0	0
Potatoes,	491 tons,	1,482	0	0
Cotton,	26,601 yards,	1,695	1	6
Tan. leather,	44,011 lbs.,	4,401	2	0
Muslin,	60,500 yards,	6,050	0	0
Feathers,	297 cwt.,	2,703	14	0
Rags,	155 tons,	4,650	0	0
Calico,	410,182 yards,	25,636	7	6
Total value of Exports in 1810,		2,904,520	19	9
Total value in 1809,		2,367,271	3	3
Increase in value of Exports in one year,		£537,249	15	9

Of the ground on which the flourishing town of Belfast stands, the Marquis of Donegal is the sole proprietor.

Under the head of *Antiquities*, we meet with notices of Cairns, Cromlechs, Mounts, Forts, ecclesiastical and military Remains, Round Towers, &c.: but the greatest curiosity in this department of the work is an account (with a plate annexed) of a double patera of gold, weighing 19 oz. 10 dwts., used, as General Vallancey supposes, by the Pagan Irish in libations to their deities, Budh and Paramon, and to the Sun and Moon. It is of a remarkable form; and we are glad that an engraving of it was taken, since the patera itself 'is probably gone to the crucible.'

It is time, however, for us to close our account of this Survey; which is augmented by an Appendix, containing three valuable communications from Dr. Richardson; the first treating on the Zeolite, the second on the Basaltic Productions of Antrim, and the third an Itinerary, which will be useful to the curious traveller in exploring the natural riches of this district.

Mr. D. has certainly collected much valuable and amusing matter, and he has arranged it according to the plan with which he was furnished by the Dublin Society. His views are clear, and we are inclined to believe that his descriptions are faithful: but his language is not always correct, and he occasionally employs words that are not in common use on this side of the

water. It is more important to remark that he evidently has the good of Ireland at heart: while he admits that much has been effected, he does not forget to observe that much yet remains to be done; and we shall conclude with this legitimate presumption, that a work such as that before us cannot be thrown away either on the government or on the people.

The volumes are illustrated by several engravings, of no great merit as specimens of art: but we have not a single representation of an Irish farming-implement. Several views are given of the Giants'-causeway; and a map of the county of Antrim is placed at the commencement of the first volume.

ART. V. *The Tragedies of Maddalen, Agamemnon, Lady Macbeth, Antonia, and Clytemnestra.* By John Galt. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1812.

'THESE dramas are the sketches of pastime, and as such are offered to the public.'—This is an ominous sentence, and it begins the author's preface. Surely he had not sufficiently considered the respect that was due to his readers when he wrote in this manner. In truth, we have a painful duty to perform in our present critique. We meet with speeches in every one of these plays which imply no common power of imagination; and we are therefore unfeignedly sorry to be compelled to observe that, with the exception of these bright spots, we never witnessed such extravagant deviations from good taste as occur in almost all the pages of this exoentric volume. We really feel ourselves bound, at the present juncture, to hold it up as a beacon to all dramatic writers. At the same time we shall quote, or refer to, the most successful passages; and, if they bear no proportion to the defects of the different pieces, we can only again say that we regret it.

In the first play, which, like the Don Carlos of Otway, turns on the love of a son for his father's second wife, (besides the gross indelicacy of such a plot,—intolerable, we are happy to say, at this period,) the faults are much more numerous than we can specify. Indeed, it is not singular in this respect: but, merely noticing what forces itself on us, we shall still have too much to condemn.

Valdini, (the father,) observing the gloominess of Lorenzo, (the son,) on the wedding-day, thus expresses himself:

> —— 'Politeness might have taught
> At least to feign a joy for the occasion.
> I did expect a little more from you.
> 'Tis true I am your father.—
>
> 'Lorenzo.

'*Lorenza.* Oh my Lord!,
'*Valdini.* And stepmothers are often bad enough;
But you are not a child,' &c. &c. &c.

We have a character in this play intitled *a Dutchess*, who really talks like a washerwoman. Her *debut* will be sufficient:

'Joy, joy, my Lord! how does my Lady niece?
But why alone? True lovers, fresh like you,
Should be at other sport. Tut, musty parchments!
Go; go and rustle silks. Where's my sweetheart?'
'*Valdini.* WHOM?'

The Count, it will be perceived, does not himself speak choicer English than the Dutchess. Indeed, in one of inferior rank it would scarcely have been decorous; and the dramatist, in course,

"*Reddere personæ scit convenientia cuique.*"

Thus, moreover, when the Lady Maddalen is in great agitation of mind, her husband cries out,

'A doctor should be here,'

and Lorenzo, with an equally striking familiarity of expression, says to his aunt the Dutchess, on an occasion on which he has some reason to doubt her veracity, 'No fibs, good aunt.'

Maddalen, in her ravings, (and as ravings, perhaps, they are to be excused,) asks Lorenzo,

'Hast thou been at it? and would be before me?'

in killing himself, we presume the lady to mean; whose fancy is evidently rambling on the altered catastrophe of Romeo and Juliet:—but we forbear, and pass in equal silence all the strange epithets, (the '*begraced vexations*,') &c. &c., which are so abundantly scattered throughout the drama. Will it be believed that he who could so fail could also succeed as he has done in the following passages?

'Thy thoughts are like the yellow falling leaves,
That wildly rustle in the evening gale,
Dispers'd afar. Rude was the wintry blast,
That so untimely smote my blooming tree.
I thought to sit beneath the lovely shade,
Tending young lambs, all in the setting sun:
But now it waves a wild fantastic head,
And soon will lie before the feller low.
Oh! turn from me those pale heart-breaking eyes,' &c.

This (with the exception of the line in italics) is no ordinary description of the wild imaginations of insanity, and of the grief of a tender friend in beholding them.

So,

So, also, when Maddalen has stabbed herself at the side of her expiring lover, and has recovered her reason, like 'a lightening before death,' we discover (with one or two strange thoughts,) some genuine poetic feeling:

> 'A little nearer yet Lorenzo's side,
> My noble wedded lord! All I could give,
> Honour, esteem, that loving of the mind,
> Which earthly natures bear for higher beings,
> Thy virtues had: the heart, the woman's love,
> Was bred and twined with his that's silent here.
> Lay us together, where you wish to lie;
> And when the all-confusing hand of time
> Has done its part, may never herb nor flower
> Spring from the barren and abortive spot.
> Come, my Lord Duke! look on your punishment.
> But life is ebbing, and the last low sands
> Are filt'ring in the glass. My gentle aunt,
> Give me your hand to kiss. We little thought,
> When I, beneath your fond maternal wing,
> Cower'd from the churl, to take farewell like this.
> Lorenzo! O Lorenzo! now we meet.
> Lucre nor priest shall never part us more.
> We go, dear shade, where no division's known,
> Nor other boundary than light and love.'

We cannot refrain from illustrating this passage by a quotation from that play of Otway to which we have already referred. Our readers will see reason to agree with us in our supposition that the author is to be "tracked in the snow" of his predecessor on this occasion; and we think that they will not complain of the length of the following quotation:

> "*Don Carlos.* (Dying.) Prop me; apace I feel my life decay.
> The little time on earth I have to stay
> Grant I without offence may here bestow. —
> (*Pointing to the Queen.*)
> You cannot certainly be jealous now.
> "*King.* Break, break my heart. —
> (*Leads Don Carlos to the chair.*)
> "*Don Carlos.* You've thus more kindness shown,
> Than if you had crown'd, and placed me on a throne.
> Methinks so highly happy I appear,
> That I could pity you to see you there.
> Take me away again; you are too good.
> "*Queen.* Carlos is't you? Oh! stop that royal flood;
> Live, and possess your father's throne, when I
> In dark and gloomy shades forgotten lie.
> "*Don Carlos.* Crowns are beneath me, I have higher pride;
> Thus on you fix'd, and dying by your side,
> How much a life and empire I disdain!

No,

No, we'll together mount, where both shall reign
Above all wrongs, and never more complain.
" *Queen.* Oh matchless youth! Oh constancy divine!
Sure there was never love that equalled thine;
Nor any so unfortunate as mine.
Henceforth forsaken virgin shall in songs,
When they would ease their own, repeat thy wrongs;
And in remembrance of thee, for thy sake,
A solemn annual procession make;
In chaste devotion as fair pilgrims come,
With hyacinths and lilies deck thy tomb.
But one thing more, and then, vain world, adieu;
It is to reconcile my Lord and you.
" *Don Carlos.* He has done no wrong to me, I am possest
Of all, beyond my expectation blest.
But yet, methinks, there's something in my heart
Tells me, I must not too unkindly part.
Father, draw nearer, raise me with your hand,
Before I die, what is't you would command?
" *King.* Why wert thou made so excellently good,
And why was it no sooner understood?
But I was curs'd, and blindly led astray;
Oh! for thy father, for thy father, pray;
Thou mayst ask that which I'm too vile to dare;
And leave me not tormented by despair.
" *Don Carlos.* Thus then with the remains of life we kneel;
(*Don Carlos and the Queen sink out of the chairs and kneel.*)
May you be ever free from all that's ill!
" *Queen.* And everlasting peace upon you dwell!
" *King.* No more, — this virtue's too divinely bright;
My darken'd soul, too conversant with night,
Grows blind, and overcome with too much light.
Here raise them up; gently, ye slaves. Down, down,
Ye glorious toils, a sceptre, and a crown,
For ever be forgotten; in your stead
Only eternal darkness wrap my head.
" *Queen.* Where are you? Oh! farewell: I must be gone.
" *King.* Blest happy soul, take not thy flight so soon;
Stay till I die, then bear mine with thee too,
And guard it up, which else must sink below.
" *Queen.* From all my injuries and all my fears,
From jealousy, love's bane, the worst of cares,
Thus I remove to find that stranger, rest.
Carlos, thy hand; receive me on thy breast;
Within this minute how shall we be blest!
" *Don Carlos.* O far above
Whatever wishes fram'd, or hopes design'd;
Thus, where we go, we shall the angels find,
For ever praising, and for ever kind.

" *Queen.*

" *Queen.* Make haste: in the first sphere I'll for you stay;
Thence we'll rise both to everlasting day.
Farewell! [*Dies.*

" *Don Carlos.* I'll follow you,—now close my eyes,
Thus all o'er bliss the happy Carlos dies. [*Dies.*"

The offensive part of the play is so softened, or kept out of sight, in this passage, that we can read it with considerable pleasure. The *rhymes* indeed do all that they can to destroy the pathos: but there is an unconquerable charm in this simple language, which we again and again recommend our poets of all classes, especially our dramatic poets, studiously to imitate. The wish to remind them of this delightful master of natural expression was our principal reason for making the preceding selection: but, if the reader will refer to the tragedy of Maddalen, he will perceive that the whole spirit of the concluding scene is borrowed from Don Carlos.

We are sorry to say that we can scarcely find a speech deserving of quotation in 'Agamemnon.' Perhaps the following reply of Ægysthus to Cytemnestra, who has urged him to murder her husband, may be one of the best:

'Things come upon me with such rush and haste,
That wanting time, I want the power to think.—
Let me take breath; hurry me not so fast.
This speed of fate appals me. I'm as one
That steer'd his pinnace gaily in a river,
Feeling the force of some great cataract
Drawing him down: alarm'd, he sees the stream
That rippling murmur'd, changed to flowing glass,
O'er whose smooth silence slides the roughest wind:
Louder and louder nears the roaring fall.'—

The final speech of Cytemnestra, too, after Agamemnon's assassination, has some merit in expression: but it is more revolting in thought than almost any thing that we ever read. The play abounds in such passages as the following:—Agamemnon's *nurse* is speaking:—

——'Oh! well-a-day, that I
Have liv'd to see the royal babe I cherish'd,
When grown to manhood, and a hero fam'd,
Supplanted in his love, by a vile slave;
A coarse, rank-smelling groom; a neighing groom;
But fit companion for the horse he tended.'

We would wish to speak as gently as we can of the failure of Mr. Galt in the tragedy of 'Lady Macbeth.' *Magnis excidit ausis:* but ought he not to have had the fear of Shakspeare before his eyes, and to have remembered,

" Within that circle none durst walk but he?"

Among the strange personages introduced or mentioned in this drama, we have a '*spaing*" hermit, and a '*culdee*' priest. Now, if these are Scotch terms, they have no business in an English play; indeed, they produce an effect so grotesque, yet so offensive, that we scarcely know whether to laugh or to be indignant when we meet with them. Yet, with a thousand other offences, whether of coarse or of pedantic expression, this drama has some noble speeches, and towards the end some striking scenes. Lady Macbeth is consulting the priest as to the nature of Macbeth's mental malady, when he tells her:

'*Bawdran.* In camp, and council, and the earnest strife,
Lie the true med'cine for the king's disease:
But solitude and sights of human woe,
And shelterless probation of distress,
Only, can minister to your relief.
'*Lady.* I have a tower lav'd by the salt-sea waves,
In whose horizon, never sail is seen,
Save the lone ferry-boat in summer calms,
Or stranded vessel in a winter's morn,
With her dead crew all frozen to the masts.
For such a place, so desolate and dread,
I would forsake these gorgeous rooms, and barter
The pomp and servitude around my throne,
If I might taste the Lethé of repose.'

At the conclusion, also, when Macbeth's castle is attacked, and the soldiers of Macduff are bearing the branches of Birnham-wood before them, we have a spirited little dialogue:

'MACBETH AND SEATON.

'*Macbeth.* What mean these acclamations from our men?
'*Seaton.* The enemy have thrown the branches down,
And round the castle show us all their war;
Light-kindled spears and crests of waving plumes,
Which your bold lieges on the walls and towers
Welcome with gay defiance.
'*Macbeth.* Hearts of gold!
Give them my thanks. In their courageous note,
I heard the voice of other times resound.—
I'll wear to-day the armour I had on,
When, for my carve at the Dane's carnage feast,
I gain'd new honour from the good king Duncan.
Ha! will my every thought still turn on him,
And each slight motion of long unfelt joy,
But stir the wounds of guilty agony!'

The two subjoined speeches have much poetical vigour:

'*Macbeth.* I oft in childhood roamed the haunted glens,
And heard the rustle of the bard-sung ghosts;
In bolder youth, all lonely, I have scaled

The

The windy summits of our wildest hills,
And heard the whisp'ring of contriving sprites:
But, nor in childhood, nor in pensive youth,
Nor when the sisters on the blasted heath,
With supernatural prediction hail'd;
Nor all the spectral visions I have seen,
By night, or noon, or in the witches' cave,
Ere struck such chill into my daunted heart,
As the creations of my guilt to-day.'

We are here strongly reminded of

——— "Shadows to-night
"Have struck more terror to the soul of Richard," &c.*

Macbeth's last address to the lifeless body of his wife is bold and animated, but it concludes too horribly:

'*Macbeth.* Come stand apart, and let me look on her.
Tears ill would suit the stern magnificence
That should attend thy bier: such drops as these
Red trickling from my sword, should fall for thee.
For thou wast made of such courageous stuff,
That the heroic when compar'd with thine,
Prov'd minor metal form'd for meaner use.
Yes, noble lady, thou hast died a queen;
Invidious fortune would have bent thee down,
But thy undaunted spirit aw'd the fiend,
And with triumphant royalty has left
Its frail corporeal mantle as it rose,
To rouse me to great things. Baudron, thou said'st,
That the same sun that saw the queen a corse,
Would ne'er on me bestow a setting beam.
Lo! there she lies! — And hark, the storm without
Thunders prelusive to the dread finale.
Fate do thy worst, I dare thee to the beard;
Nor life, nor crown, nor victory, nor fame,
Inspire my great intent. For death I fight;
And will the black tremendous trophy gain,
Ere this last consummating day be done.
Pull down the royal standard from the tower,
And in its stead unfurl the funeral pall;

* We cannot omit so fair an opportunity, as that which a quotation from Richard the Third affords us, of congratulating our contemporaries on the appearance of a representative of that character, who must remind those who have seen Garrick of their past pleasures, and may console those who have not, for their loss. Let us hope that the flood of success will not have its too common effect on Mr. Kean; and that his judgment will continue to improve, without diminishing his originality and spirit. We shall then have a model of natural and nervous elocution, where it is most wanted, at our national theatre.

The

The ensign of my cause. To all adieu.
Dull guestless mansion of my love, farewell;
I go to meet her, though it be in Hell!'

The tragedy of Antonia is, in our opinion, interesting; and, if the subject would permit, it is in point of management far from being ill adapted for representation. The characters of the heroine and of Carravagio are forcibly conceived. Really, however, the author is much too free for the nineteenth century, in his choice of dramatic subjects. His plays could not ever be read, without much caution and omission, where we should think a dramatist would most wish them to be popular;—not that any thing is *licentiously* coloured: but the very matter of the scene (with the exception of Lady Macbeth) is too warm, nay, too gross for present toleration. We shall make one or two extracts:

'ANTONIA AND CARRAVAGIO.

'*Antonia.* My worthy friend, why falls this shower of sorrow?
What we, afflictions and mischances deem,
Are but the movements of that viewless chain,
On which, dependant from the throne of Heaven,
Hang all inferior and created things.
Nought from the vassalage of fate is free,
But Virtue: she alone exemption boasts,
And in her own allodian grandeur firm,
Denies the claims that Chance and Time pretend.
What! though this fabric crumble into dust,
And with the sentenc'd globe return again
Into the elements, and all to nothing;
That which is I shall purified ascend,
And with the general vanishing of things,
Behold its dross and blemish pass away.'

To the subsequent lines, we need make no exception of affected phraseology, such as once or twice disfigures the foregoing passage:

'*Antonia.* Benevolence is like the glorious sun,
Whose free impartial splendour fosters all:
It is the radiance of the human soul,
The proof and sign of its celestial birth.
All other creatures of corporeal ore,
Partake the common qualities of man:
Love, hatred, anger, all particular aims!
But in this infinite and pure effusion,
This only passion of divinity,
He grows the rival of the heav'nly God.'—

This play is less offensive than the rest in point of familiar or mean expression; and we shall therefore pass over in silence the few instances that we have noticed.

The character of Orestes, in the tragedy of Clytemnestra, has a very lofty and solemn dignity thrown about it: but how shocking is it to classical ears to hear him continually calling his friend Pylades! We could wish him *is πυλην δὸς* for it, on every occasion of its repetition. — The description of the prodigies preceding the dreadful act of Orestes is vivid and distinct:

'CLYTEMNESTRA AND ELECTRA.

'*Clytemnestra.* Canst thou unmov'd behold the God of day,
Shorn of his glory in the bright of noon?
The dark'ning prodigy still spreads apace.
The town is forth; and from the palace tower
The streets with wan and wond'ring faces seem
As thickly pav'd as with the wonted stones;
The cheek of life resigns the beauteous bloom,
And takes the ghastly ashy of the dead;
The hills frown black; the distant sea foregoes
Its heav'nly azure for a dismal red;
The fields are chang'd, and for their cheerful green
Assume a sullen supernat'ral hue;
And solitary pasturing herds, in bands,
Come to the gates, and seek protecting man.'

The concluding speech of Orestes also is poetical: but alas! we could find too many parallels for the following vile language, —part of an address from Ægysthus (our old friend "the *groom*") to Clytemnestra:

'Knowest thou, fair, that fondness may grow flat,
And smack of staleness too, yea turn to sour.'

Faugh! —

We have been the more full and particular in our remarks on these plays, because we deem it not unlikely that the real Roscius *, who has lately appeared among us, may be the exciting cause of many embryo tragedies; and we should rejoice to contribute in any way to the production of a genuine drama.

ART. VI. *Childe Alarique;* a Poet's Reverie. 4to. pp. 100. 15s. Boards. Edinburgh, Ballantyne; London, Murray. 1813.

WE confess that we were never greatly pleased with the revival of the quaint old title of "Childe," which has been prefixed to some modern compositions; and, though the extraordinary merit of "Childe Harold" rendered this and

* See the preceding note, p. 270.

a thou-

a thousand other objections on the score of antiquated and idle phraseology, of little comparative importance, but we are not disposed to extend our indulgence to inferior performances. In the language of Sir Hugh Evans, we must once for all observe, on the adoption of these obsolete terms, "What phrase is this? Why, it is *affectations*."

The style, however, in the text of 'Childe Alarique' is, generally speaking, free from those blemishes which the title had led us to anticipate. The plan of the poem (if plan it can be called) is the following: An enthusiastic youth, a sort of Beattie's Edwin, is described as wandering among the woods and rocks of a romantic tract of country, and enjoying the various beauties of nature with the keenest feelings of delight: but he is lured away from his retirement, and tempted to mix in the guilty pleasures of crowded cities, by a certain 'ordinary, unfeeling, boasting, worldly-minded character,' called Braggadochio. Soon wearied with the *empty* enjoyments of society, (for such is the inference that may be drawn from the overcharged moral of this 'Reverie,') he returns to his beloved solitude: but, alas! all is changed; innocence and peace of mind have left the 'Childe,' and the fairest prospects in his eyes have lost all their light and beauty. Some pleasing and pathetic lines occur in this part of the poem, which we shall presently select for the amusement of our readers. The Genius of Religion next appears to the unhappy wanderer in his melancholy rambles, and thus he recovers his mental tranquillity, and the rural scenery regains its former attractions. Indeed, this young poet seems highly favoured; for the vision just mentioned is not the only one that vouchsafes to cheer and animate his retreat: the Genius of Poetic Inspiration also pays him a morning call or two; and we are willing to allow that we have really some proofs of her having left her card in person at Alarique's cottage. — Our readers shall judge for themselves, as we have nothing farther to detail respecting the conduct of the hero; and they are now as well acquainted with his destiny as we are. The nicer traits of his character will best be unfolded by quotation:

'"Oh Heaven! it is the blessed breath of spring!
The groves again their green attire assume;
It is the black-bird loudly carolling;
These are my favourite flowers that round me bloom:—
Oh what shall cure this everlasting gloom?
What charm shall still the voice that seems to cry,
"Go to the charnel vault — the rayless tomb—
Here is no path in our sweet scenery
For thee, detested child of guilt and misery!"

" " Is this the radiant path I trod of yore?
Green grows the grass—the skylark soars on high!
Lo! yonder is the castled summit hoar,
Beneath whose cliff I watch'd the evening sky.
Oh, God! the sunbeam sheds its brilliancy
On that surpassing scene! but, ah! for me
What scene shall wake responsive ecstacy?
Where is mine innocence? mine inward glee?
Oh days of early bliss, how soon your transports flee!" "

This passage, which is the one that we promised to select, is perhaps among the best in the volume, and seems to us to express natural and affecting thoughts in poetical language. We could make some slight verbal objections: but we reserve them for occasions on which their excuse is not pleaded by so much merit. One of the most frequent failures of the author, and that which we shall first mention, is observable in the construction of the Alexandrine verse. The division in this line should be always plainly marked at the end of the sixth syllable; we mean, that the sense should not require the voice to run on to the seventh, without any pause in the rhythm. For instance, in the following lines, the cadence is imperfect in various degrees, for the reason given above:

' Than bright responsive gleams of rapture that are mine.'

' And all my infant raptures swell my heart anew.'

The last example is very offensive: indeed, such a verse is not an Alexandrine; it is a non-descript, that pauses in the middle of a word, as if it stuttered.

' And the sweet Muse, that loves the mountain forest, woo.'

' Oh, dreams beloved! whilom I knew your influence well!'

' And thou shalt live, as best befits the Muse's child;'

which last line must be divided into three quadrysyllabic portions in order to make it run harmoniously: a division that is inadmissible in this species of measure; which would then indeed justify Pope's otherwise unwarrantable description of it, and really become

" A wounded snake dragging its slow length along,"

were it to be so unmercifully mangled.

' The radiance wild of evening on her features played.'

' For ever fled—nor aught can renovate their sway!'

' Too well the grief, that clouds their pageantry, I know.'

Although this is less objectionable than the other examples, yet, strictly speaking, even here we have not a sufficient break in the middle of the verse.

' To

'To cast its own celestial light on all around.'

'That erst was filled with rays of genius passing bright.'

The latter verse also may be kept in countenance by many similar lines in our best authors: but so may ten thousand other errors, and against such a plea we must always protest.

'With soul-exalting influence, most divinely bright.'

'And with one rosy smile banished each lurking care.'

'All, all is mystery! All investigation vain.'

The next blemish that we shall notice is the too frequent recurrence of similar rhymes; and the perpetual use of trisyllables and upwards that end in "y," to terminate the verse.

"For us and for our trage*dy*
We do implore your clemen*cy*."—

This sort of licence is one of the *idlenesses* of Dryden; which modern versifiers are as apt to follow as if they mistook it for a beauty.—The third defect is the admission of quaint, obsolete, or affected phrases; though, as we have premised with approbation, these are not numerous.

'*Childe Alarique 'gan* utter his delight.'

'Go then, *unapprehensive* youth! explore.'

'*What-while* fair twilight sheds her own enchanting hue.'

'*They twain did* revel in the Naiad's court.'

'In luckless hour *did Braggadochio vilde*.'

'That cared not what *aspect* the scenes did wear:'

although here again we are aware that high authority may be pleaded, even for the comparatively modern accentuation of the word.

How the following line is to be read, we do not profess to conceive:

'That custom *familiarizes* — look on high.'

Nor can we allow the liberty taken with the last word in this verse:

'Or like the wreck of dry leaves *rustling*.'

Nor permit the poor article to be so proscribed as it is below:

'And *thousand* airy structures busy build.'

We have been so particular in noticing the faults of 'Childe Alarique,' because, though he by no means exhibits any uncommon poetical power, yet he displays enough to be encouraged to continue in his favourite exercise; and such as we are convinced might attain a very respectable eminence, by cautious and patient correction of his performances: which seem to be struck off in the first heat of fancy, and sent into the world with all

their sins upon their heads. Let the author peruse again that beautiful and most highly polished of all modern poems, the Psyche of the late Mrs. Tighe *. He quotes a lovely passage from it in the notes, ("Delightful visions," &c. &c.) and seems by his remarks on that passage to be fully sensible of the merits,—the various, high, we had almost said unrivalled, merits of that enchanting work. Let it be his model: we wish that it were the model of all our living poets, in point of expression and versification. We shall then, we have no doubt, have to welcome the author of 'Childe Alarique' again, with a much less mingled satisfaction than we now can feel in the perusal of his unfinished efforts. He undoubtedly possesses imagination and sensibility: indeed we suspect that the latter quality is redundant rather than deficient in his mind.—We shall allow him to make his own parting impression on our readers.

'Pass we awhile the summer hours unsung,
And now the tranquil charms of autumn view!
Behold the Childe in some rude cavern flung,
Weaving the heath-bell into garlands new;
While the wide lake unfolds its waters blue,
Slumbering beneath the sun's attemper'd ray;
And all is silent, save the plaintive coo
Of the lorn dove, or, screaming for his prey,
The falcon's voice remote, from lonely summit grey.

'Or meet him wandering through thy rocky vale,
Glenfinlas, where, by watchful shepherds seen,
Ghosts of the mighty dead are known to sail,
And marshal shadowy troops upon the green:
See him, enraptured with the lovely scene,
By lone Moneira's current bend his way,
Till pensive evening sheds her light serene;
And now to watch the tints of dying day,
Reclined upon the heath, his listless length he lay.' †

We select one other specimen, from the third canto, just after the appearance of Religion to Childe Alarique. She has comforted him with some words of holy advice, the talisman of reason and conscience;

'The heavenly strains of soothing music died
Like the soft summer gale in languid mood;
But the bright talisman was left to guide
His homeward steps amid the tangled wood.

* See the M. R. Vol. lxvi. N. S. p. 138.
† '*His* listless length *he lay*' is not grammar.

The

The youth, who, long by melancholy's brood
Of hideous phantoms haunted night and day,
Felt all the bitternes of solitude,
Now saw the wonted forms in bright array
Arise with sunny smile to cheer his lonely way.

'Grovelling and false apostates all are they
Who tell us Nature has no charms to show,
When Winter's heavy clouds deform the day,
And on the woods their darkening shadows throw;
It is the influence dark of worldly woe,
And worldly wickedness that mars the scene:
From Nature's every change can transport flow
To the free mind of Innocence serene,
Alike in forest sere, or prank't in freshest green.'

The volume concludes with some minor poems, which are not marked by any very distinguishing characteristics. The author is generally stated to be R. P. Gillies, Esq.; a principal contributor, also, with Sir Egerton Bridges, to a miscellaneous work intitled *the Ruminator*, lately published, and of which we shall make our report very soon.

ART. VII. *Lives of Marcus Valerius Messala Corvinus, and Titus Pomponius Atticus;* the latter from the Latin of Cornelius Nepos. With Notes and Illustrations. To which is added, an Account of the Families of the first five Cæsars. By the Rev. Edward Berwick, Vicar of Leixlip, in Ireland. Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

ART. VIII. *The Life of Apollonius of Tyana.* Translated from the Greek of Philostratus. With Notes and Illustrations. By the Rev. Edward Berwick. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Payne.

THE former of these volumes consists of two parts, the first containing Memoirs for a life of Marcus Valerius Messala Corvinus, and the second furnishing a biography of Titus Pomponius Atticus, translated from Cornelius Nepos, and accompanied by illustrative annotations. Both these pieces throw light on that majestic revolution, which transferred the ascendancy at Rome from the party of Cicero to the party of Augustus.

In the particulars here compiled respecting Messala, however, we observe some anachronism of arrangement and much controvertible matter; and, as we have not formed so high an opinion of Messala as that which Mr. Berwick has conceived, we shall patiently re-examine at considerable length his grounds of inference. Important historic doubts await solution from a critical estimate of Messala's character. Blackwell, in his Memoirs of the Court of Augustus,—Middleton, in

his Life of Cicero, (Vol. ii. note to p. 475.)—and even Gibbon, in a note to his seventeenth chapter, have concurred to panegyrize him: but Blackwell was deficient in sagacity of inference, and Middleton in industry of research; and though Gibbon usually displays a penetration equal to his information, in this instance we suspect him to have been biassed by the testimony of Tibullus and Horace, and never to have been drawn into any direct investigation of the conduct of their patron. The praise of the poet is naturally excessive, and that of the *rewarded* poet is always suspicious.

The father, Marcus Valerius Messala, was consul in the year of Rome 701, and is mentioned by Cicero as *nostri laudator, amator, imitator*. This *imitator* announces a younger man than Cicero; so that his son must have been a full generation younger, and was probably between twenty-five and thirty years of age when Cicero, in his sixty-first year, repudiated his wife Terentia. An intrigue with the historian Sallust is supposed to have occasioned this divorce, as she married him almost immediately: but, after the loss of Sallust, she married the young Messala. He was no doubt habitually intimate in Cicero's family, had grown up a Ciceronian, and owed a part of his skill as a barrister and as a constitutional lawyer to this personal access. When Cicero, angry that Brutus had spared Anthony, began to lean towards Octavius, and to seek in him a barrier against that bitterest and most dangerous enemy, it is naturally probable that Messala would also draw near to Octavius. We conceive that he did, and that he attached himself to Brutus, with Cicero's letter of recommendation on the road, not as a sincere friend but as a spy.

Cicero was about this time thoroughly displeased with Brutus: he had not been employed to write the apology for the tyrannicide; his foe Anthony had been spared by the conspirators; and Rome had been quitted by the chiefs of the senatorial party, contrary to his advice. In such circumstances, Cicero was likely to concur in planting beside Brutus an observer, and an adviser, not less attached to Octavius than to himself; and, as Messala was polished and accomplished, and but a few years older than Octavius, it is likely that they formed a personal friendship under the roof of Cicero. At least, all the subsequent conduct of Messala indicates a perfidious profession of attachment to Brutus, and a secret understanding with the young Octavius. Shortly before the first battle of Philippi, Messala gave a birth-day dinner to Cassius, on whose generalship the army relied, and obtained from him the most important situation, the command of half of the right wing, which in the main was to be under the orders of Brutus. It had

been determined that this battle should take place, not as a measure of military but of political policy. "Fearing a general desertion," the officers had recommended it, and had drawn Brutus into their sentiment. In course, he headed those who had the worst opinion of the cohesion and the eventual prevalence of the senatorial party; in other words, the secret friends of Octavius.

The armies were so arranged, that Anthony became opposed to Cassius, and Octavius to Brutus. The battle had no sooner begun, than Messala, contrary to expectation, took a circuit with his legions, instead of attacking the enemy in front, and fell on the camp of Octavius, which had been evacuated; piercing the august but empty litter, and killing Lacedæmonians in buckram, of whom nothing was heard before or afterward. Brutus was also successful in more serious conflict: but he was betrayed by the ardour of pursuit into so imprudent an advance, that he could not turn back in time to the relief of Cassius, whom Anthony, in command of all the picked troops, overthrew. The head of Cassius was cut off by one Pindarus, who dropped his name * thenceforwards: this event, though by some related as a suicide, was clearly an assassination; and it is indeed acknowleged to have been so by those writers, who describe Cassius as having been dispatched by the same dagger with which he had killed Cæsar.

Though the conduct of Messala during the second battle of Philippi has not been so particularly described, it may be inferred from that of his under-officer, the poet Horace. A soldier does not celebrate his own cowardice; consequently, the

"*relicta non bene parmula*"

is to be interpreted as referring to treacherous and exemplary flight; under a colour of self-reproach, the poet is proclaiming his service to Augustus. Brutus had been compelled by the public opinion of his staff to fight both the battles of Philippi, contrary to his own judgment and to the decided advice of Cassius; and he was on each occasion left in the lurch by the dispersion of his followers. Indeed, every thing shews that he was surrounded by traitors, in whom his confiding nature had trusted; and, to conceal this treachery, the Commentaries of Cæsar Augustus ascribed to him a degree of success which the event negatives.

We now come to the most momentous and the most equivocal transaction in the life of Messala; namely, the part

* He appears to have assumed that of Demetrius, and to have gone over to Anthony.

which he took respecting the death of Brutus, and which has never been critically investigated by any historian. The account given in Plutarch's life of Brutus is every where still implicitly trusted and followed; although, by Plutarch's express declaration, it is derived from Messala himself. This received account describes Brutus, after the loss of the second battle, as applying in vain successively to Clitus, to Dardanus, and to Volumnius, requesting that they would slay him; all these friends considering his resolution as rash. If, however, Brutus wished to die like Cato, his own right arm was not unused to warfare; and those, who ask of their acquaintance the weapons of suicide, usually intend to be prevented from their purpose. The time was not come for Brutus to die; his affairs were not desperate; he had just learnt that he was master of the sea; and, even with the remnant of his shattered force, Messala was invited, after his death, to continue to make head against the Imperialists. Sextus Pompeius, under greater adversity of the cause, could still at a later period conduct an honourable and efficacious resistance.

One Strato, however, an Epirote, who is said to have studied rhetoric with Brutus, held the sword which dispatched him.—What results? Messala presents this Strato to Augustus Cæsar, who confers on them both a splendid independence; and Messala, though included for form's sake in the proscription of the triumvirate, is exempted specifically from such proscription in the very same breath which issues the edict. Messala next suffered himself to be named in the senate as prefect of Rome, in order to prevent the party of Brutus from opposing this despotic institution, and in a few days resigned the situation to an avowed creature of Augustus.

If Strato had been the cordial friend of Brutus, and had already concluded that the cause of the republic was desperate, and that it became the disappointed hero of independence to set the example of a disarming resignation by recurring to a voluntary death; would Strato, with principles so lofty, be found begging alms of the triumvirs, and be contented to owe a fortune to Augustus? Or would Augustus, pestered with the rapacity of hangers-on, have selected for patronage such obscure and claimless merit, when he had so many *secret* as well as *public* services to remunerate? No. Some coloured curtain covers the naked truth.

Why do the omen-mongers tell us that the spirit of Cæsar appeared to Brutus when he was about to leave Asia, and again in his tent at Philippi; unless to mark the pursuit of Nemesis, and the final arrival of an awful retribution? The spirit of Cæsar appears, because Brutus fell as Cæsar fell.

Omens

Omens are commonly invented by those who, not daring to speak out, yet wish to guide their readers to some nefarious inference; and on this occasion probably they mean to insinuate that assassination attempted the life of Brutus in Asia, and *took* it at Philippi.

Assuming for a moment the harsh hypothesis that Strato was the hired murderer of Brutus, the conduct of every one concerned becomes perfectly natural in the circumstance. It was for his employer to bring him to Augustus; and it was for Augustus to recompense them both. The irony of Messala is intelligible when he presents at court, with a snivelling sneer, the man "who did the last kind office to his Brutus:" but, as a *serious* appeal to the bounty of Augustus, the words would be absurd.

Against a supposition so darkly injurious to the memory of Messala, we invite a diffidence which we do not feel. Conscious that it seems ungenerous to attack, and criminal to calumniate, the dead of other times, who may want a living defender, we advance into notice a point of view not hitherto taken, exactly while Messala possesses in Mr. Berwick a learned and admiring advocate; and we exhort him to endeavour to wipe off our aspersions, and to convince posterity of the innocence of his hero. We shall very willingly surrender an opinion which is painful, whenever we are convicted of error in the court of critical justice.

The purity of Messala's reputation was greatly favoured by the circumstance that his descendants married into the imperial family. For several generations, it was a rising house, in favour at court, against which it was inexpedient openly to speak or write. Be it observed, however, that Tacitus, who does not spare Messalina, speaks highly of Messala. His memory deserted him so remarkably, that two years before his death he had forgotten his own name.

Concerning these minor particulars, Mr. Berwick displays more industry than arrangement. We could wish him to recompose the whole biography; and to include in his notes *all* the original documents, — all the passages in the antient historians, or poets, which relate to his hero. These should be accompanied by fresh translations; as he may find passages in Plutarch, for instance, in which the covert sneer has escaped the received interpreters. The incidents related should receive a strictly chronological order; and, in our judgment, an opposite verdict on the character should be pronounced.

The life of Titus Pomponius Atticus is translated with elegance, is annotated with learning, and exhibits a good model of the form in which antient biography, and even antient history,

history, may most advantageously be communicated. Of the original documents relative to the subject, the most important is selected, and given in its native form; and all the supplementary scattered illustrations, which antiquarian erudition or comparative criticism can suggest, are made conducive to its explanation and completeness.

A genealogical account follows of the first five Emperors of Rome; which we should gladly have seen accompanied by a table engraved in the manner of a pedigree. It is difficult to describe in words a complex and ramified relationship, so as to make it clear to the understanding, and retentive by the memory. In a note to p. 156., the author attempts to trace some similarity of character between Augustus and the late Mr. Pitt. This great difference distinguished them,—Mr. Pitt was reserved, haughty, and not at his ease: but Augustus was affable, courteous, and even ignobly familiar: his veneration for Livia was principally founded on her perpetual assertion of dignity, on that nobility of manner which on public occasions is so impressive. Augustus was conscious of those inconveniences which a ruler feels from making himself too cheap; and he found accommodation, though not comfort, from the intrenchments which Livia opposed to the indiscriminate access of his early acquaintance.

The second of these publications, the life of Apollonius of Tyana, is a still more interesting and meritorious work than the life of Pomponius Atticus. It is translated from the Greek of Philostratus, and is accompanied by illustrative notes. In the first two books, the author had the advantage of having his way somewhat smoothed by the extant translation of Blount: but, during the rest of his long task, he was guided only by the satisfactory (though not unexceptionable) interpretation of Olearius. That the entire work should now appear for the first time in an English dress is the more surprizing, as Ferrari had given at Venice in 1549, and Vigenere at Paris in 1611, vernacular versions of it, which excited attention. In Germany, the celebrated Wieland undertook to re-fashion the story, and has founded on it the classical and profound novel intitled Agathodæmon; which replaces to the modern world, in the character of its tendency, the lost commentary of Hierocles.

The narrative is very entertaining, and throws great and various light on the state of knowlege, opinion, and manners during the first century of the Christian æra; at the beginning of which Apollonius was born. He was educated for the profession of medicine, and was sent to study it at Tarsus in Cilicia, in the college attached to the temple of Æsculapius; and

and his remarkable personal beauty drew the attention of the governor of the province, who was soon afterward deposed for conspiring against the Romans. He inherited a liberal sufficiency from his parents, gave up part of the inheritance in favour of his brother, and undertook extensive travels, which comprehended Babylon and Rome. He hired at Nineveh a kind of servant called Damis, who acquired a comic veneration for his master, and wrote a legendary account of his actions, in which a miraculous colouring was given to daily incidents. Either from ill health, or from too abstemious diet, Apollonius was much shrunk and altered for the worse when he arrived at Babylon: but he afterward recovered his naturally majestic appearance.

He was received at Babylon by the sovereign as a man of eminent and established reputation; a character which was founded partly on his philosophy and eloquence, and partly on his skill as a practical physician. It was not uncommon for the medical men of antiquity to travel professionally; advertizing their arrival in large places, staying as long as they could attract consultations, and defraying with the gifts of their patients the expences of their journey. To compare these itinerant physicians of antiquity with our quack-doctors may seem derogatory: but we may trace a radical resemblance, and indeed an imitation, in their mode of practice. The university of Salerno, which was quite a Jewish college, imported from Ægypt its angelic and seraphic degrees, and handed down to the modern world many usages of antiquity. In the middle age, quack-doctors were mostly Italian Jews, educated at Salerno; and they commonly undertook the tour of Europe after they left college, paying their way by the fees for their advice. Such strolling practitioners often travelled with the accompaniment of a punch, or merry-man; who officiated as a valet, and whose feats of drollery and activity served to convene the populace, preparatorily to the doctor's harangue in behalf of his nostrums, or to amuse the stay of those who were awaiting the opportunity of private consultation: — at fairs, and on market-days, Jew-quack-doctors are still seen to pitch their tents or stalls in this way. If we call these stalls a chapel of Serapis, or of Æsculapius; if we call the doctor Apollonius, and his merry Andrew, Damis; we have perhaps a tolerably faithful though ignobly caricatured likeness of the early medical progress of our hero of Tyana.

Apollonius, on his mother's side, seems to have been born a Jew. Philostratus does not indeed say this: but he makes the mother dream about Ægyptian gods, which shews that she was not a Greek Pagan. Before Josephus wrote, the antients knew little

little of the Jews, and often called them Pythagoreans, from Pythagoras, a disciple of Zoroaster, or Ezra, who accompanied a Tyrian colony to Crotona. Tarsus in Cilicia, where Apollonius was educated, was a city of Jews; and the medical colleges there no doubt imported their professors from the Serapeum of Alexandria, which, under Ptolemy Physcon, became a Jew-university. Apollonius is stated to have understood the language of the Cadusians. The continent morality adopted by him during his youth is also symptomatic of adhesion to the pharisaic teachers of the Jews. He professed, moreover, to cure insanity by casting out demons; and miracles of this class are repeatedly ascribed to him. At Ephesus, he commanded the stoning of the person who had brought the plague into the city. The theology, which he ascribes to his braminical instructors, is pantheistic, like that of Philo. He even makes allusions in his preachings (Mr. Berwick notices one at p. 216., and one at p. 219.) to the Jewish (or rather to the Christian) Scriptures.

Apollonius is made to approach Rome during the reign of Nero; and he meets many terrified Pythagorean philosophers flying from the persecution of that tyrant. Now it is not recorded that any *philosophic* sect, but it *is* recorded that the *Christian* sect, was persecuted by Nero; whence it may be inferred that Philostratus habitually describes the Christian doctrine under the name of a philosophy. We will now copy, in the words of the Pagan biographer, the account of one of the miracles ascribed to Apollonius:

'What I am going to relate is set down among the marvellous acts of Apollonius. A girl on the point of being married seemingly died, whose bier was followed by him who was to have been her husband, in all the affliction usual in like cases of interrupted wedlock. As she happened to be of a consular family, all Rome condoled with him. Apollonius, meeting the funeral procession, said to the attendants, Set down the bier, and I will dry up the tears which you are shedding for the maid, whose name he inquired after. Almost all the spectators present thought he was going to pronounce a funeral oration, like what is done on such occasions, to excite compassion. But all he did was, to touch the maid, and after uttering a few words over her in a low tone of voice, he awakened her from that death with which she seemed to be overcome. She immediately began to speak, and returned to her father's house, as Alcestis did of old, when recalled to life by Hercules. The relations of the girl presented Apollonius with an hundred and fifty thousand drachms, which he in return begged to settle on her as a marriage-portion. It is as difficult to me as it was to all who were present, to ascertain whether Apollonius discovered the vital spark, which had escaped the faculty, (for, it is said, it rained at the time, which caused a vapour to rise from her face,) or whether he cherished and brought back to life the soul, which to all appearance was extinct.'

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This miracle, (which is controverted in a note by Mr. B.) though perhaps distorted rather than embellished by the Pagan legendary from the original narrative of Damis, seems to be strongly attested. The fact happens in a great city, not in an obscure place. Even this second narration is within a century of the death of Apollonius; and it is made on the faith of memoirs collected by the wife of the Emperor Septimius Severus. Appeal is made to eye-witnesses, who were struck with it as a supernatural occurrence; and the Empress Julia was perfectly within reach of obtaining corrective information from persons who were acquainted with the bystanders. Modern infidels have opposed this miracle to those of the apostles:—but what if this also were a Christian miracle? Apollonius is stated to have visited in prison an endangered philosopher; Saint Paul at this very time was imprisoned and likely to be martyred at Rome. Now as Apollonius was the contemporary of Saint Paul, and probably his school-fellow, having received his early education in the Jewish academies at Tarsus; — as they were both gentilizing Jews and great travellers, and every where preaching piety, and every where curing disease; — they must not only have heard of each other, but have met in life repeatedly, and have felt many sympathies. Is it absurd to suspect that Apollonius, about the year 54, became a convert to the doctrine of Saint Paul, and is in fact the Apollos mentioned in the Acts of the Apostles. Without the original narrative of Damis, the fact cannot be completely ascertained: but it may perhaps have happened that the Pagan Philostratus inserts "the gods" and "the gods" * in all the speeches of Apollonius, and that the latter was really employed in preaching a purer faith and a simpler piety. The testimony to his austere morality, to his noble disinterestedness, and to his courageous fortitude, is prominent throughout this biography; and these are virtues which would do honour to an apostle. If his manners at times border on rudeness, and want the meekness of the Christian character, be it observed that genius often seeks celebrity in singularity, and that zeal often prompts an explosion of audacity.

It appears from the fifth book that Apollonius countenanced the insurrection against Nero, and favoured the elevation of the Flavian family. So did the Christians. His great popularity at Alexandria, his preaching there in the temple of Serapis, and his importance in old Vespasian's eye, all countenance the supposition that he was a leading man in the Christian sect. Now

* The sophistication of the words quoted by him is especially remarkable at p. 415., where "the gods" are foisted into a passage from Daniel.

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it is evident from the ecclesiastical records, that no man but Apollos can at this period have possessed an all-commanding influence among this sect.

The share which Apollonius took in the deposition of Domitian was still more avowed and conspicuous than that which he had taken in the deposition of Nero. Such was his hatred to tyranny, that he bespoke at Ephesus the Ino of Euripides, and rose to apply and to applaud the seditious passages. The same spirit followed him into conversation, and into the pulpit; and it was he who roused the whole empire, from Greece to Rome. He ventured to designate Nerva, during the life-time of Domitian, as the fittest successor; and he voluntarily came to Rome to be tried for prophesying the purple to Nerva. It was a sort of public and avowed conspiracy which Apollonius conducted,—a conspiracy of public opinion against a justly odious tyrant; and when, in consequence of the alarmists having overstated the treasonable charges against him, he was acquitted at Rome, the court rang with acclamations, and loud shouts of joy rebounded from every square in the metropolis. The Christians were accused of supporting this conspiracy, and of lending their pulpits to the propagation of discontent; and it was Stephanus, a Christian, who gave the death-blow to Domitian, at the instigation of Domitilla. Indeed, Domitian, by the execution of his Christian nephew and heir-apparent, Flavius Clemens, had attacked not merely the religious liberties but the ambitious hopes of the Christians, and had disappointed them of seating an emperor on the throne of the Roman world.

So many memorials had been preserved by Damis respecting the discourses and harangues of Apollonius, previously to his enrolment among the Christians, and circumstances afterward involved him in so many seditious transactions, that it might well appear inexpedient to the fathers of the church to give an account of his acts after their own manner:—they rather wished him to be claimed by the Pagans than by themselves;—and this would account for the state in which the documents descend to us concerning Apollos, or Apollonius.

Something of illustration is to be derived from comparing this biography with Lucian's life of Alexander of Abonoteichos; yet we deprecate the admission of analogy. If the conduct of Apollonius began with imposture, it attained the rank of disinterested virtue.

ART.

ART. IX. *Political and Historical Arguments, proving the Necessity of a Parliamentary Reform*, and pointing out the Means of effecting that important Measure, without injuring Individuals, or convulsing the Nation. To which is prefixed, a candid View of the present State of National Affairs; addressed to the Electors of the United Kingdoms. By Walter Honywood Yate, Esq., late Member of St. John's College, Oxford; one of his Majesty's Justices of Peace and Deputy-Lieutenants for the County of Gloucester, &c. &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 652. 18s. Boards. Jones, &c.

ART. X. *The Comparison; in which Mock Reform, Half Reform, and Constitutional Reform, are considered.* Or, who are the enlightened and practical Statesmen of Talent and Integrity to preserve our Laws and Liberties? addressed to the People of England. By John Cartwright, Esq. 8vo. pp. 106. 4s. Johnson and Co.

ART. XI. *An Appeal to the Nation*, by the Union for Parliamentary Reform according to the Constitution. 8vo. pp. 82. Jones.

ART. XII. "*Killing no Murder*," or a plain Proof that the Reformation of acknowledged, subsisting Abuses, will not endanger the British Constitution; being an Answer to Lord Selkirk's Letter to Major Cartwright, on the Subject of a Parliamentary Reform. 8vo. pp. 76. 3s. 6d. Wilkie and Robinson.

IN defiance of all the disappointments experienced in the attempts at parliamentary reform, and the more discouraging effects of division among its advocates, the cause has still to boast a body of zealous adherents; and they deserve the greater credit for their perseverance, from the apparent indifference of their countrymen: since the people at large are, it must be admitted, far from shewing that "serious and affectionate interest" for the question, which the Whig aristocracy require as a necessary preliminary to their participation in the labours of the reformers.—Various opinions will naturally subsist, regarding the length to which it is desirable to carry the demand for reform: but, however cautious we may be in giving assent to the whole of the claims set forwards in the publications before us, we rise from the perusal of them with the satisfaction of having read a full statement of the question, and of having taken a comprehensive view of the different efforts to produce reform, both in the present and in past ages.

The recent revolution in the state of continental affairs is likely to lead to an alteration in the tone of argument on the part of the reformers. For a long time back, the danger to our independence from the military power of France was alleged as a first-rate motive for effecting a change in the constitution

Edward I., being the earliest authenticated transcript of it in preservation: but several copies of it are extant in the antient annals of monasteries. Its name was derived not from its bulk, but from the great importance of its provisions.—Next in consequence to this fundamental document, was the *Charta de Foresta*, granted in the reign of Henry III. The predilection of our monarchs for the pleasures of the chase had been the cause of incalculable injury to the humble cultivators of the ground, in the neighbourhood of their demesnes; and it had been customary to mark out a tract of land as a forest for the prince's recreation, by the convenient authority of a commission from the court of chancery: satisfaction to the dispossessed owner appearing to have been altogether a secondary consideration. The preamble to this act of Henry III. was in these words:—"All forests which King Henry, our grandfather, afforested and made, shall be viewed by good and lawful men; and if he hath made a forest of any other wood, more than of his own demesne, whereby the owner of the wood hath hurt, we will that forthwith it be disforested," &c.

Mr. Yate is not disposed to extend indulgence to those members of the Honourable House who are in the habit of absenting themselves from the debates; and he cites a variety of instances in which important points were carried by very few votes:

'The oath in favour of passive obedience and non-resistance was rejected by only three votes!! The bill, A. D. 1692, for totally disqualifying placemen for sitting in the House of Commons, (the best bill, surely, as to its object, that ever was brought into the House,) was rejected by only two votes! The famous amendment by the Lords to the bill of January 27th 1702, by which amendment it was made high treason to attempt to set aside the Protestant succession in the house of Hanover, in case of Queen Anne's leaving no posterity, was carried by only one vote, 118 to 117. I have been told, that a member of that parliament, who was infirm and gouty, but proved faithful to his country in attending at the hazard of his life, often mentioned his own proceeding on that occasion with pleasure, and particularly on his death-bed.'—

'In the end of Queen Anne's reign, a place-bill was lost in the House of Peers for want of one vote, while one of the Lords, who had two proxies in his pocket, was buying a penknife.

'The act, A. D. 1728, by which a fine of 500l. is enacted for asking, or receiving, by himself, or another, money, or other reward, by way of gift, loan, or device, &c. for voting, or declining to vote at elections of members of parliament, was carried by only two votes, 91 to 89.'—

'How often, while the merits of a contested election have been trying within these walls, have the benches been almost empty! But the moment the question approached, how have we seen the members eagerly crowd to their seats, and then confidently pronounce upon a subject,

subject, on which they had not heard a syllable, but in private from the parties.'

Similar instances might be quoted in more recent times.—In giving a narrative of the practice of bribing members of parliament, Mr. Yate agrees with other writers in ascribing its origin to Charles II. His minister Clifford carried it to a dangerous and shameful length. The schemes of this king, and of his brother were, however, too frightful to be sanctioned by any parliament; so that the art of systematically influencing and bribing the House may be said to have come in with the Revolution.

'Votes were, for the first time after the Revolution, bought by Sir John Trevor, speaker of the House of Commons, "a bold and dexterous man," says Burnet, "who knew the most effectual ways of recommending himself to every government, and had been in great favour in King James's time. Being a Tory in principle, he undertook to manage that party, provided he was furnished with such sums of money as might purchase some votes."

Such were the gross practices of our ancestors; practices now exchanged for considerations granted in the less disreputable shape of influence. Mr. Yate, however, is scarcely more indulgent to the latter than to the former. He draws a contrast (Vol. ii. p. 148.) between the power of the crown at the present time and that which it possessed two hundred years ago; and he argues that the diminution of *power*, by curtailment of prerogative in many important points since that epoch, is more than counterbalanced by the vast increase of *patronage* attendant on the augmentation of our army, our navy, and our finance-departments. For the purpose of remedying a long catalogue of evils, he concludes with what he terms a plan of parliamentary reform; and the first part of it involves an enumeration of the points with which the members of parliament ought to be familiar:

'I. To comprehend the origin and history of the British constitution.—II. To understand the exact nature and fundamental principles of our government.—III. To be well acquainted with the origin and progress of the House of Commons.—IV. To know the relation between King, Lords, and Commons.—V. To ascertain the power and the business of parliament.—VI. To be versed in the origin and history of English liberties, Magna Charta, Bill of Rights, &c.—VII. To abridge the duration of the parliament from seven to three years.—VIII. To exclude two-thirds of the members by rotation.—IX. To elect the members by ballot, and to exclude by ballot.—X. The members of parliament to vote by ballot.—XI. To make the members responsible to the people.—XI. To destroy all undefined privileges assumed by parliament.—XIII. The people

on no occasion to be excluded from the House of Commons.—XIV. Every person to have a right to publish and to comment upon the speeches of members.—XV. Absentees from the House to be subject to severe penalties.—XVI. To discover the origin, funds, and materials of corruption, and to destroy the funds and the materials.—XVII. To destroy also the means of corruption in elections.—XVIII. To suffer no manner or degree of ministerial influence in the parliament.—XIX. To deny all manner of improper persons access to parliament.—XX. To obtain a pledge or test from every candidate previously to his election.'

The chief novelty in these comprehensive provisions relates to the proposal of introducing the practice of voting by ballot. Mr. Yate thus explains the method in which he is desirous that it should be carried into effect:

'On the day of election, let there be as many boxes provided as there are candidates who offer themselves: let those boxes have each a strong lock and key to them; let the name of one candidate be written or painted on the top of one of them, and so on with the rest; and lastly, let there be a round hole cut in the lid of each of them, sufficient to admit a small ball to be dropped through it into the box: let those boxes then, so fitted up, be placed in a private room, with a curtain before the door on the inside, and let each voter, when it is his turn to go into that room, which must be done by himself alone, take with him, from a promiscuous heap, two balls, since he has two votes to give, (or as many balls as votes,) and let him drop those two balls through the lids of those two boxes, on which are written or painted the names of those candidates for whom he would be willing to give his vote.—Having disposed of his two balls, let him come out again, and depart in peace of mind to his own home, without fear or apprehension of being ruined for having voted according to his conscience.—

'The same method must likewise be practised in both Houses of Parliament; with this only difference, that there need not be provided any more than three boxes for them; the first for the Yeas, and the second for the Nos; and the third (which should be called the blank-box) to contain the superfluous balls that need not be counted. Let then every member, at the time of voting, take from a promiscuous heap two ivory balls, the one white, and the other black; and when he enters the room (defended likewise by a noble curtain) where the boxes are placed, let him drop the white ball into the Yea box; or the black ball into the No box; and dispose of the other ball into the blank box, and the whole operation is completed.'

Mr. Yate's volumes have a claim to the praise of patriotic intention, and of utility, as bringing under one view a variety of facts and reasonings connected with our parliamentary history. In other respects, they possess but a slight title to encomium. A considerable part of them is taken from former books; and the style throughout is diffuse, desultory, and disfigured by inelegancies: such, to go no farther, as the colloquial phrase '*all*

manner

manner of persons,' in one of the extracts just quoted; though this may be borrowed from law-usage.

II. We come next to the veteran advocate of reform, Major Cartwright. His 'Comparison' contains, in the space of 100 closely printed pages, a variety of miscellaneous remarks, put together with little arrangement, but possessing considerable interest from a lively style, and from the introduction of anecdotes relative to several of the most conspicuous of our public men. A narrative of the attempts at reform during the last thirty years is little else, according to Major C., than an account of successive desertions from the cause by the leaders of our political parties. He shews no mercy to these apostates, and disclaims all other reform than such as is radical and complete; a reform which should render our representation coextensive with our taxes, and which should give us, not septennial or triennial, but annual parliaments. In consequence of this decisive opinion, he and his friends dissent altogether from qualified schemes of reform, such as that of Mr. Brand, and acknowlege no parliamentary leader but Sir Francis Burdett. The Major's chief object seems to be to confirm the public in their indifference towards the Opposition, and to warn them against accepting any thing in the shape of a partial or modified reform. He takes occasion to advert repeatedly to his favourite system of defence, — an armed population; without which, he is of opinion, no tactical skill on the part of our officers, and no superior strength on that of our navy, can secure us against danger from France. This plan, given to the public nine years ago in his work intitled "England's Ægis," (M. R. Vol. xliii. p. 430.) consists in training the inhabitants, both in town and country, to military exercise, under the nobility and gentry, in conformity with the provisions of ancient statutes. Being at the call of the sheriff and the subordinate magistrates appointed for preserving the public peace, this force, according to Major C., should pass under the name of "County-power." Having sent a copy of the Ægis to Mr. Fox, the author received the following answer:

"Dear Sir, "*St. Anne's Hill, Monday, 28th. Nov.* 1803.

"I return you many thanks for yours of the 22d and the packet accompanying it. That your plan is on a right principle is beyond a doubt. How far it might be entirely practicable, even if men could get so far the better of their alarms at Democracy as to think of adopting it, may possibly be more doubtful; but those alarms put all question of now carrying it into execution beyond all probability.

"It is impossible not to admire the steadiness with which you persevere in your endeavours at the public good; but it is in vain to hope

that you, who mean freedom, can ever get your systems patronized by those, whose wish it is to enslave the country more and more.

" I am, with great regard, Sir,

" Your most obedient servant,

" J. Cartwright, Esq. " C. J. Fox."

On the entrance of Lord Grenville and Mr. Fox into office, the Major lost no time in transmitting copies of his book to the different members of the cabinet: but he had the mortification of experiencing no attention to his plan; a neglect which he ascribes to their reluctance to vest military power in the hands of the people. 'We must,' he says, (p. 7.) 'look for no restoration of this branch of our constitution from a Grenville ministry. In their mighty wisdom, they despised the constitution when brought in competition with their own policy.' The vehemence, with which the author returns (pp. 6, 7, 8, 9, 10. 13.) to the charge against the Grenvilles, discovers a great dread lest they should again come into office without giving a distinct pledge to the people in behalf of reform. 'Why,' he asks, (p. 10.) 'was the parliament dissolved in 1806? Was it not that the creatures of the Grenville ministry might occupy the seats for the government-boroughs, and parliament be otherwise adapted to their support?' Against the present ministry, he says very little, and evidently considers them as having small hold of the popular attachment. 'The constitutional reformers do undoubtedly require that, before they join in a cry for a Grenville ministry, Lord Grenville himself, and a decent sprinkling at least of the great men on whom he leans for support, shall explicitly pledge themselves, both in word and action, before the public and in the several counties where they have influence, to support constitutional reform in the representation of the people in parliament.'

Lord Grey occupies a very conspicuous place in 'the Comparison.' Twenty years ago, that nobleman, then *Mr.* Grey, and the author, were fellow-labourers in the cause of reform; Mr. G. being a member, with other persons of rank, of the well-known society of the " Friends of the People;" and the Major was a member, in addition, of a more democratic body called the " Society for Constitutional Information." This body having carried their views too far towards the side of Thomas Paine, it was resolved by Mr. Grey, the present Duke of Bedford, and other " Friends of the People," to write a letter declining all future intercourse with them: but a personal cordiality between Mr. Grey and the Major still continued. In March 1794, the latter, having written to the former a letter reprobating the confident language of Mr. Pitt respecting the King's power

power of bringing foreign troops into the country, received an answer, of which the following are extracts:

" Dear Sir, " *London, March* 8. 1794.

" I have received your very obliging and instructive letter. The motion on the subject of the Hessians has been put off till Tuesday next, on account of some of those, whose support I expect, not having been able to attend sooner. I think we were rather deficient at the moment, in not having moved more strongly the declaration of Mr. Pitt, which certainly went the length of asserting the King's prerogative in the fullest extent, to bring into these kingdoms, in time of war, foreign troops, without any specification as to the object for which they were to be employed, or any limitation as to their numbers.—

" Without going the length which many others do, of an absolute and unqualified condemnation of the principle of universal suffrage, as worse even than the present system, you know that my opinions have always differed from yours on that subject. I wish to exclude no plan, and therefore I do not at present wish to propose any. I wish, in the first place, that the existence of the grievance should be fairly ascertained, and admitted, — then, from the different remedies proposed, let that be selected which, in the judgment of the people themselves, shall appear to be best calculated to correct it. — Without going further into the question at present, I shall content myself with stating my opinion to be, that if a right of voting, so extensive as to comprehend all the householders of the kingdom, were established, that the present system of corruption would be completely defeated, and all the advantages that can be expected from a system of universal representation, without many of the mischiefs, to which none can say that it may not be liable, would be obtained."

Still labouring indefatigably in the cause of reform, Major C. took occasion, in subsequent years, to continue his communications with Mr. Grey. The augmented strength of the Opposition in 1805 induced him to recommend a parliamentary discussion of the question, and he was mortified on receiving notice that a different opinion was entertained by his correspondent:

" Sir, " *Howick, Nov.* 10. 1805.

" I received your letter during an absence from hence of some days, which prevented my answering it so soon as I otherwise should have done. — On my return last night I also received your essay *, in which I have no doubt I shall find much instruction, and for which I return you my best thanks.

" I hope I shall not forfeit the credit you give me for sincerity in the cause of parliamentary reform, by declaring my opinion to be strongly against agitating that question at the present moment. I am persuaded that the cause itself would not be promoted by it, though it might very probably suffer, if in its present unpromising state that be possible; and that no measure the opponents of Mr. Pitt

* 'The State of the Nation.'

can take would more effectually assist that minister. This is only an individual opinion; not having lately had an opportunity of communicating with Mr. Fox, or any other of my friends on this subject; and by their opinion, rather than by mine, if it should be likely to have any influence with you, I should wish you to be guided.

"I am, with great regard, Sir,

"Your very obedient humble servant,

"C. Grey."

In regretting the difference between Lord Grey's view of reform and his own, the Major has no hesitation in considering his Lordship as shackled by his connection with the Grenvilles. 'From some of the ministry of 1806,' he says, (p. 64.) 'nothing good was expected: but there were among them those who ought to have cut off a hand rather than have touched the reins of government on any conditions other than on those of a radical restoration of the constitution. That ill-considered coalition with Lord Grenville is the root of Lord Grey's uneasiness, and of the decay of his popularity. But for this his Lordship, I presume, would have pursued a very different course, and have shadowed his brow with patriot wreaths.'

Lord Grey's speech on reform, at the end of the session in 1810, is next passed in review. On that occasion, his Lordship expressed himself thus:

"Whenever this great question shall be taken up by the people of this country seriously and affectionately,—(for, notwithstanding all we every day hear, I doubt much whether there exists a very general disposition in favour of this measure,) there will then be a fair prospect of accomplishing it, in a manner consistent with the security of the constitution. But until the country should have expressed its opinion upon this subject, the examples of the other nations of Europe should deter us from any precipitate attempt to hurry on to premature or violent operation, a measure on which the best interests of the nation so essentially depend. For myself, I beg leave to repeat, that when I feel it my duty to give my support to it, it is on those principles which I have before laid down: those principles depend on practical views, which have been approved by all the great and honest men, who have been heretofore favourable to the measure of a temperate reform."

In this disposition of waiting for a demonstration on the part of the people, the Major is by no means inclined to acquiesce. He calls it (p. 65.) 'a hanging back in the cause of liberty and of the constitution.'

'It is the epidemic disease of the Whig aristocracy. It has cleaved to them in a surprising degree for more than thirty years. Like the hereditary scrophula, there is no purging it out of the blood.—Of this scurvy humour, I may feelingly complain. It hath cost me personally, at very many periods, no small labour, no small vexation,

vention, no small trials of patience.—What do we mean by a Leader, but one who does not wait to be led? He is properly a Leader, who calls forth the people to save them; who, having broken their deadly slumber, awakens reflection; who informs the public understanding, — infuses public spirit, — arouses courage, — animates to action, — inspires hope, — and leads on, by the safe paths of the law and constitution, to victory and the peace of freedom!'—

'His Lordship has indeed talked about *principle*, but he has not laid down any. Principles are light and truth. They seem to be old deserted friends he cannot face. The doctrine that principles depend on practical views is like that other convenient doctrine of modern politicians, that we are to look for the principles of the constitution in the practice of men who can influence parliament to adopt measures of legislation, which are then absurdly styled the practice of the constitution.'

Strictly impartial in the distribution of praise and censure, the author records with rigid fidelity the successive apostacy of our most renowned politicians from the cause of reform. Thirty years ago, the Marquis of Rockingham and Mr. Fox were in office, and Mr. Pitt (at that time a very young man) figured on the Opposition-side in the cause of reform.

'In 1782, Mr. Pitt's motion for a committee was lost by only twenty votes, and that by an accident; — yes, by an accident, — a mere accident, — that of the Marquis of Rockingham, then prime minister (as his secretary, Mr. King, who I believe is now alive, the next morning informed me,) forgetting the day of a discussion, on which was rivetted the anxious attention of the whole kingdom!!! But, so it was; the prime minister, forgetting the day of the discussion, forgot to give the customary summons to his friends, and the question was lost by twenty votes only. This faculty of forgetting is one of those which makes man's nature a riddle; for it was, at the time currently reported, and generally believed, that the absence from the debate of Mr. Burke, whose red hot enmity to the reform and whose snorting scorn of every thing built on human rights were well known, was at the earnest entreaty of his patron the Marquis, who felt that any opposition by his dependant, would of course have been laid at his own door. He, therefore, did not forget to keep Burke away, although he did forget to send his more obsequious partizans; and Burke, whose temper was sufficiently ungovernable, did submit to fall in with his patron's policy.'

Unfortunately, Mr. Pitt was destined to follow the same course as his opponents. In 1782, he had been in the habit of meeting the Major and other friends of reform in cordial intercourse at the Thatched House Tavern. The question being on the propriety of aiding their efforts in parliament by interesting the people at large in the cause, 'we all unanimously agreed, Mr. Pitt and all, — and he, — that same Mr. Pitt, amended the first draught of our resolutions with his own hand, — "that the sense

sense of the people should be taken," that summer, "in their respective districts," on the subject of "a parliamentary reformation, without which neither the liberty of the nation can be preserved, nor the permanence of a wise and virtuous administration can be secured."

It will be in the recollection of many of our readers that Mr. Pitt did not forsake the cause of reform immediately on coming into office, but went so far as to submit specific propositions to parliament in its favour. These, however, being unsupported by the government-interest, met the fate of his Slave-Trade motions.

'Mr. Pitt started a moderate reformer. Perhaps he had not then looked deep enough into his subject. Perhaps from the very first, his grand object was to arrive at power. In 1785, when he was minister, I was informed by the late Duke of Richmond, that on Mr. Pitt's accession to power, the King left in his hands the question of parliamentary reform to be disposed of as he should think fit; and the Duke at the same time gave me the perusal of the plan then to be brought forward in a manuscript-bill. Aware how deficient it was in those principles on which his Grace and I had formerly so perfectly agreed, he intimated to me, that, with the advantages afforded them by their situations in the ministry, respecting a legislative measure, they had drawn their line at what they conceived to be the point of practicability, and when I had read the bill, he asked my opinion of it, which I gave to this effect; that I could not discover the prospect of success, because it was too defective in simplicity and constitutional principle to arouse and animate the people in its favour. Experience, and reflection, however, afterwards convinced me, that even thus early Mr. Pitt had become a mock reformer, whose game it then was to put on the mask of moderate reform: a mask which must of course be worn by every mock reformer, who knows the value of public opinion.'

Mr. Brand's sincerity in the patriotic cause is above all suspicion: but he does not escape the Major's animadversions for falling into the great error of declaring a disposition to be satisfied with a 'moderate reform.' 'It is strange,' he says, 'that the man who paid to the last farthing debts of his father which he was not bound to pay, should offer the public at large a composition of half-a-crown in the pound. The stopping of one hole in the cullender will not make it hold water. Our system of representation is so completely decayed and crazy, that none but a crazy man could, as it should seem, attempt its partial, progressive amendment.'—At a public dinner of "the Friends of Reform" on May-day 1809, Mr. Brand officiated as one of the stewards; and, to preserve unanimity in an assemblage of nearly twelve hundred persons from different parts of the kingdom, the principles of reform were only generally mentioned,

tioned, the particular mode of accomplishing it being left out of the question. On this footing, a string of propositions was adopted; of which the principal were, 1. That representation ought to have as wide an extent as taxation in support of the poor, the church, and the state.—2. That such representation, as a common right, ought to be fairly distributed throughout the community.—3. That parliaments ought to be brought back to a constitutional duration, which should not exceed one year.

Instead of these sweeping propositions, Mr. Brand's motion in parliament, when it came to be made, was found to be confined to, 1. The disfranchisement of decayed boroughs.—2. A transfer of their representation to the large towns hitherto unrepresented, as Manchester, Birmingham, Sheffield, &c.—3. Triennial parliaments.

The plea urged by Mr. Brand to his reforming friends, in behalf of this qualified course, consisted chiefly in its "expediency." This word has no harmonious sound in the Major's ears. 'A curse on this same imagined *expediency!* It is a foul fiend. It is for ever haunting the heads of our politicians. It gives us more trouble and does us more mischief than all the fleets and armies of Napoleon. Principles defy faction and sophistry; but *expediency* is a reed that shakes with every wind.'

The next object of the Major's reprehension is Mr. Curwen:

'Mr. Curwen figured, in 1809, as a moderate reformer; and with what success? His bill, when it came from his Whig hands, was pale blue. On the treasury-bench, it was changed to the colours of hypocrisy, black and white; and it was suffered to retain, as it is said, about sixteen of its author's original words! Mr. Curwen,—what could even a mock reformer have done more?—nevertheless voted for it. Now mark with what respect it was mentioned in the Cornwall gazette:—"Mr. Curwen's bill, after having had its teeth drawn, has passed the committee of the House of Commons." Is it not, therefore, time to leave off this child's play of "moderate reform;" and to be convinced, that unless the people shall appear in strength to draw the teeth of the borough-faction, to talk of parliamentary-reform is to talk nonsense?

Mr. Brougham, the latest parliamentary-advocate of moderate reform, experiences no gentler treatment:

'He seems (p. 34.) an adventurer who puts to sea on this all-embracing subject, without the necessary precautions for making a safe and successful voyage. His bark is not provided either with the ballast of human rights, the compass of the constitution, or the rudder of common law.'

'The great argument perpetually in use with the planners of half-measures, that is, with your half-reformers, is,—that "they are as good as the times will bear;—as much as can be carried at one time:—if,

—if, indeed," say they, "the nation were disposed to support any thing better, then it would be our duty to propose it: we reverence, as much as any, the constitution in full perfection, and only lament that we are restrained by prudence from at once attempting its full recovery." '

After having encountered so much disappointment from lukewarm friends, the Major mentions with great delight an example of a contrary nature in the case of Lord Stanhope. Thirty-three years have passed since his Lordship and the Major met the deputies from the petitioning counties and towns; and, during all that long interval, Lord S. has steadily adhered to the cause of parliamentary-reform. At first, he was desirous of proceeding by degrees, but he has long been as ardent for decisive measures as the most zealous patriot could require.

"*Seven Oaks, Kent, 25th July*, 1810.

"When I was last in town," says his Lordship, "I informed some of the modern 'moderate reformers,' that I was against this weak attempt at 'moderate reform,' as they are latterly pleased to term it; and that I conceived that very gradual reform would be far too slow for the critical situation of affairs. I do not know whether they were, or were not, all of them over well pleased with my frankness and sincerity.

"Let any man of common sense but look at the state of things at present.—The people are yet, as it were, asleep. Nor do I know that you and your friends will wake them, till events shall; events that the very stones of the streets will feel.—May God grant that it may then not be too late to save the country, and the freedom of its ancient constitution. I can make ships, printing-presses, stereotype-plates, and telescopes; but I cannot make men who will see and feel as I do. I have laboured hard in the vineyard for six-and-thirty years, but to no effect. Past experience will regulate my future conduct. I do not think that I shall attend any county or other meetings, till I conceive that I see day-light of some kind, and which I freely and frankly confess that I do not at present."

Notwithstanding the severity of his animadversions on the members of Opposition, we are induced to think that the Major has still hopes of co-operation at least from the Foxite part of them. He points the popular odium chiefly at the Grenvilles; and in one passage, (p. 77.) alluding to the Whigs and to the change of times, he adds, 'may *they* also change ere it be too late.' Amid all the disappointments of his cause, his comfort appears to rest in the stedfast adherence of Sir Francis Burdett; whom he frequently holds up as the deserved object of the most unbounded popular favour.

Having thus given an account of the leading features of the Major's pamphlet, we shall conclude with a few observations

on

on his authorship. While we are gratified by the manly boldness of his expressions, we have repeatedly regretted that an unfortunate want of method should be allowed to curtail them of much of their energy. He has made no divisions into chapters or sections, and, as to a table of contents, it would seem that he deems it an infraction on the liberty of composition. It follows that, though his sentences are not perplexed, the reader is obliged, by the strange separation of his materials, to read and compare backwards and forwards, before he can take in the whole compass of the argument. In this respect, we cannot help saying that the author stands himself in need of that reform which he is so eager to give to others. Occasionally, though not very frequently, we meet with negligences of language. In one passage (p. 91.) he speaks of a thing done by Mr. Pitt, '*prior* to his *subsequent* attempt:' — an expression which, for accuracy, seems much on a par with the passage so greatly noticed a few years ago in the epistolary communication which was ascribed to a royal personage, "*Tonyn's business remains as it is.*"

III. The 'Appeal to the Nation,' the next pamphlet in our list, is evidently a production of the same pen, though published anonymously. It is of considerable length, and embraces a great variety of topics, urged with the same cogency as in the former work, but with a greater portion of regularity. We have here not only a division into sections and distinct tables of contents, but an index, which completely saves to the reader the trouble experienced in the Major's antecedent publication. It would, however, be fruitless to attempt an analysis of a tract which comprehends almost every argument in the catalogue of the reformers. The danger of a standing army to public liberty is very forcibly illustrated; (pp. 7, 8, 9, *et seq.*) and the long duration of parliaments, as well as the tyranny of *ex officio* informations, incurs the poignant animadversion of this unsparing writer. The tract is concluded by a copy of the original Resolutions of the "Union for Parliamentary Reform," at the Freemasons' Tavern in June 1812. These Resolutions are explanatory of the object of the association, and declare the same principles with regard to limiting the duration of parliaments and rendering representation co-extensive with direct taxation, as the pamphlet which we have just noticed. We proceed, accordingly, to report the fourth and last of the tracts under review, before our observations extend to such a length as to prevent us from bestowing an adequate space on it.

IV. The quaint title of 'Killing no Murder' is not calculated to excite a favourable prepossession: but this pamphlet, though very prolix in style, will be found to contain a consider-

able

able share of sound information. The author has not given his name, but describes himself as a humble individual, incited to write by no other motive than an ardent desire of serving his country. The particular reason of his addressing the public was a wish to correct the erroneous impressions circulated in Lord Selkirk's letter to Major Cartwright. He attacks particularly (pp. 15. 18, 19. 25.) his Lordship's reasoning on the government of the United States; and he remarks very properly that a practical failure, in so recent a government as that of America, is of little more consequence than the discovery of an error in a speculative opinion. The fact is, however, that Lord Selkirk, in his reasoning, has by no means done justice to that government, which contains various provisions that we and our European neighbours might copy with advantage. One of the rules of the American constitution is never to allow an office to be particularly desirable on the score of profit; and when, by increase of business, the fees of an office exceed the original stipulation, it is common to exact from the occupant a corresponding deduction. Another practice, on which we might greatly improve, is that of obliging public institutions to defray their own expences. From what has recently passed before a parliamentary Committee on the subject of prisons, we believe that Mr. Bentham could soon shew us how to make the labour of criminals subservient to national utility. On other points, too, and those of no small importance, our public boards might take a lesson of economy from the Trans-Atlantic republicans.

In analyzing the source of parliamentary misconduct, this writer is by no means disposed to join Lord Selkirk in laying the blame on the representative, but would ascribe it to the defective or rather corrupt nature of his election. What can be expected from a man who obtains his seat by bribery or undue influence, and who seldom lies under any kind of responsibility? Examine the situation of our Judges and our military officers. No one will venture to accuse them of corruption; and as little will it be said that they are naturally superior to the other well-educated classes of the community. Constitutionally, they have similar passions, similar propensities, and similar infirmities with their neighbours. How, then, do we account for their disinterested conduct? By the nature of their situation; which, while in one respect it places them beyond temptation, subjects them in another to punishment for misbehaviour. The grand rule, therefore, with regard to legislators as well as other men, is to give them *motives to be honest;* or, rather, to take away the inducements to a contrary course, and allow free scope to the natural tendency of the

mind towards rectitude. We have had examples in boroughs that were notoriously corrupt, of the electors being re-instated in character by the simple expedient of an augmentation of their number. Shoreham and Cricklade, having abused their elective trust, were thrown open to the adjoining hundreds; and the experiment succeeded to admiration, for the plain reason that it is more difficult to bribe many than few. How different is the situation of most of our boroughs from these places in their amended state? Corporators have become owners instead of trustees; and our charters, which, from their essence, are declaratory of public rights, are converted into little else than private estates. Yet the opponents of reform do not hesitate to accuse its abettors of infringing the constitution.

Admitting that many enemies of reform are men of respectability, powerful reasons may still be urged for qualifying the weight of their opinions. The best institutions have met with resistance, and from respectable quarters too, until their utility was ascertained. On going back to the origin of Magna Charta, we observe King John supported in his opposition as well by strenuous advocates as by valiant soldiers. Edward I. found it necessary, much against his will, to vest the right of taxation in the representatives of the people: but, had Edward possessed a ministerial House of Commons, with a nation disposed to listen to such counsellors as Mr. Windham and Lord Selkirk, the statute "*de Tallagio non concedendo*" would not have been obtained. In later times, a similar course would have prevented the grant of the Habeas Corpus act, and even of the Bill of Rights. In fact, it may be laid down as a rule that, while the ministers of the day seldom wrangle with past reform, they are almost all adverse to advancing a step farther; and they will make no concession which is calculated to lessen their ability to guide at will the machine of government.

ART. XIII. *Geological Travels in some Parts of France, Switzerland, and Germany.* By J. A. De Luc, F.R.S. Illustrated with Topographical Maps. Translated from the French Manuscript. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1813.

WE have recently taken notice of the former travels of M. de Luc, written on the same plan and with the same object which directed those now before us *. Deeply interested in the science of geology, and zealous in the propagation of his theoretical opinions, he endeavours to enforce and illustrate them by giving a minute description of the countries which he

* See Rev. Vol. lxvii. N.S. p. 48.

has

has examined; and he thus attempts to substantiate certain facts, which he supposes are clearly proved by the phænomena that present themselves on various parts of the earth's surface. In the present series of travels, we do not perceive that any new principles are brought forwards; and they seem to be valuable chiefly as containing additional proofs of the former doctrines, deduced from new situations, and such as are quite unconnected with those which had been previously described.

The first excursion related in these volumes was among the mountains of Neufchatel, situated between the lake which bears this name and the province of Franche Comté. The author seems to have been induced to visit this district, in consequence of some remarks that were made by Saussure in his *Voyages dans les Alpes*. That philosopher, of whom M. de Luc speaks in the highest terms of commendation, and to whom he attributes much of the knowlege which we at present possess on the subject of geology, says that no blocks of granite are found in the valleys of Neufchatel and Franche Comté; and he connects this fact with the hypothesis that these masses were transported to their present situation, in consequence of some violent currents of water, which were produced by a great convulsion on the earth's surface. The refutation of this supposition leads the present author to the consideration of his former positions, and to the farther confirmation of his doctrine respecting the great catastrophes which have been experienced by the external strata. M. de Saussure seems first to have been impressed with the idea that all the strata which contain marine remains must have been originally horizontal, at the time when these bodies were deposited in them; and that the vertical position, in which many of them are now found, must have been the consequence of subsequent changes:—an opinion which is embraced and warmly defended by M. de Luc, who proceeds to explain the manner in which these changes must have been accomplished. In doing this, he repeats the arguments which he used on a former occasion, to shew that the power which acted on the regular horizontal strata, in order to bring them into their present form, must have been the unequal subsidence of portions of the earth's surface, in consequence of the falling in of subterraneous caverns; and that the air contained in these spaces, thus become violently compressed, caused an explosion of the broken fragments of the rocks, and dispersed them over the surface. The greatest part of his observations, made in his excursions near Neufchatel, were in proof of these points. According to his usual manner, he gives a very minute account of his progress through the country, and of all the phænomena which he observed in it; referring them,

as he proceeds, to the illustration and confirmation of his hypothesis.

We cannot follow the author in his excursions through these mountains, but shall generally remark that he meets with many phænomena in his way which appear to him to prove the truth of his former geological speculations. He adduces various facts to shew that vallies have been produced by the subsidence of parts of the earth's surface; that the hills have not been elevated above their original situation; and that when the sea retreated, and laid bare the continents, it did not *form* the hills and vallies, but only left them as they had been moulded by previous causes. He also describes several of those appearances which he styles chronometers; *i. e.* processes that have been going forwards since the earth's surface underwent its last great change; from which we are able, with some degree of accuracy, to ascertain the length of time that has elapsed since the occurrence of this grand revolution, and the commencement of the processes. On the circumstances attending the formation of lakes, he strongly insists; and the nature of their shores, of their bottom, and the mode in which the water is discharged from them, are supposed to be very decisive proofs of the manner in which they were produced; not by being excavated by any cause still in action, as that of a running stream, but by some violent catastrophe, by which the strata on the earth's surface have been displaced, and large cavities left, which were afterward filled with water.

M. de L.'s second journey was made in the countries of Munster, Osnaburg, Hanover, Hesse, and along the Rhine. A principal object of his examination of these parts was a refutation of the Huttonian hypothesis respecting the transportation of scattered blocks over the earth's surface. We have often had occasion to refer to this subject; yet it may not be improper to quote the ensuing paragraph, as containing a clear and candid account of the question at issue:

'The following is the manner in which this author, (Dr. Hutton,) in his 18th note, entitled Transportation of Stones, attempts to prove, that the stones disseminated on the continents have been detached from mountains of their own kind, and carried down by running waters to the spots where they are at present found. "It is a fact very generally observed, that where the vallies among primitive mountains open into large plains, the gravel of those plains consists of stones, evidently derived from the mountains. The nearer that any spot is to the mountains, the larger are the gravel stones, and the less rounded is their figure; and as the distance increases, this gravel, which often forms a stratum nearly level, is covered with a thicker bed of earth or vegetable soil." Undoubtedly this is what ought to be generally observed, if these blocks, with the smaller masses, had really been

brought down from mountains, and disseminated over lower grounds, by running waters; and Mr. Playfair, drawing this inference from his own hypothesis, has accordingly asserted it as a fact. But if nothing like this is observed; if blocks and other stones are often accumulated in larger quantities at very great distances from mountains of their own kind, than in the immediate vicinity of such mountains; if, between spots where they are scattered in vast abundance, there are wide intervals in which none are found; if these blocks are of genera and species of stones of which none of the mountains, within a wide extent of country, are known to be composed; the hypothesis, on the contrary, must necessarily fall to the ground, and there cannot remain for these masses any other source, than that so clearly indicated by the disorder of the strata in the mountains, the hills, and the plains; namely, that in the catastrophes of those strata, by which, and not by the action of running waters, the vallies were produced, the above fragments were thrown out on the surface, by the explosions of the fluids compressed in the caverns in which the subsidences took place. Here then the question is clearly brought to an issue; and its importance in the History of the Earth cannot but be felt. Of the facts which will be described in the following travels, the application to this question will easily be made.'

It must be confessed that the facts and arguments, which the author adduces, to disprove the hypothesis of Dr. Hutton, are very numerous and powerful; and probably they will be deemed by most of his readers sufficient to overthrow it. At the same time, very great difficulties appear to us to oppose his own hypothesis of explosions; so that, although he may have been successful in refuting his antagonist's opinion, we do not think that he has, by any means, established his own.

We have next an account of several short excursions in different parts of the north of Germany, in the vicinity of Bremen, Hanover, Berlin, &c.; with a more ample detail of an expedition from Dresden to the Giants' mountains, in Silesia, and of one in the district of Bayreuth and the adjoining parts of Bohemia. M. de Luc presents us, as usual, with a very minute report of all his movements and adventures, and of the nature and appearance of the countries through which he passed. At every step, he perceives phænomena which he regards as confirming his geological opinions; and he seems to think that it is impossible to repeat them too frequently. His general principle is certainly good, that no facts should be admitted as of any authority unless they are found to occur in numerous instances, under a great variety of circumstances, and in various situations. He has, however, unfortunately no idea of abridgment; every thing is related at full length; and the same observations are repeated, again and again, as much in detail as when they were first described. Although, therefore,

therefore, the work in itself may possess nearly the same value with the author's former travels, yet, considering it as connected with them, we must regard it as being unnecessarily and tediously extended.

After having passed this remark on the present performance, we must, on the other hand, acknowlege that it displays the merit which we have noticed on former occasions, of very clearly expounding the principles which it professes to enforce. At the conclusion of the history of his different excursions, M. de Luc lays down a series of general propositions, deduced from the preceding observations; which, by the greatest part of his readers, will no doubt be considered as the most interesting and valuable portion of his labours. These propositions are too numerous and too long for us to transcribe: but we shall mention the heads of some of the chief of them, by which an idea may be formed of the nature of the whole. He conceives it to be a point of great importance, in the geological history of the earth, to distinguish between the two periods, 'the one prior, the other posterior to the birth of our continents.' The continents were not formed by any gradual process which is now going forwards, but by some sudden revolution or catastrophe; and the date of this catastrophe is of comparatively no great antiquity. Many natural chronometers exist, as he terms them, which prove the recent construction of the continents. The strata formed at the bottom of the sea must have been originally continuous and nearly horizontal; these strata, when divided by fractures, were converted into ridges of mountains and vallies; and it must have been by these means, and not by running streams, that vallies are produced, since it appears that the effect of running streams is rather to fill up than to excavate vallies. The strata, of which the present surface of the earth is composed, could not have been deposited from the wreck of former continents, as Dr. Hurton supposed to be the case: but they must, according to the opinion of Saussure and Dolomieu, have been separated from each other by chemical precipitation; and continents were formed not by the elevation of a part of the strata, which were at the bottom of the sea, as Dr. Hutton imagined, but by the partial subsidence of the strata, and the retreat of the water.

Next to his general propositions, the author presents us with a table of 'geological facts,' arranged according to the two periods of the earth's formation to which we have adverted above. Each of the facts has a reference subjoined, pointing out whence it is derived, and on what phænomena observed by the author it is supported. Some of these geological facts have already been stated in the general conclusions; and the others

are such as seem to be naturally deducible from M. de L.'s system.—We shall only farther observe that, if, for the reasons stated, this work will not add to its author's literary reputation, it affords additional proofs of his candour and his industry.

ART. XIV. *An Essay on the Utility of Blood-letting in Fever*, illustrated by numerous Cases; with some Inquiry into the Seat and Nature of this Disorder, by Thomas Mills, M.D., &c. &c. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Printed in Dublin; and sold in London by Longman and Co. 1813.

WE have perused this work with more interest than satisfaction, and we rise from it with rather a painful impression on our minds. During the last half century, we have fondly imagined that we had discovered some of the errors of our forefathers, and had made some progress in the knowlege of the treatment and cure of fever:—we had found that no vitiated state of the fluids occurred, and that therefore it was not necessary to draw off the blood, but that the proximate cause of the disease consisted in a diminution of the vital powers, which were accordingly to be re-animated by wine and cordials:—but we are now informed that we must trace back our steps, revert in a considerable degree to the practice of the Humouralists, and suit our hypothesis as well as we can to the practice.

Dr. Mills has occupied the situation of physician to two extensive public charities instituted in Dublin for the reception of fever-patients. Being early impressed with an opinion of the inefficacy of the common treatment by stimulants, he ventured to use bleeding; and by the moderate employment of the lancet, together with a copious and steady application of purgatives, he found that all the varieties of what is usually called typhus-fever were removed, with a degree of ease and certainty which convinced him that he was proceeding on the right plan. As, however, he thought it was impossible that diseases which were cured by bleeding and purging could depend on debility, he changed his hypothesis with his practice, and laid it down as a principle that all fevers are attended with some local inflammatory action; which may exist, according to circumstances, in the Head, the Chest, the Stomach, the Liver, the Bowels, or the region of the Heart.

The following observations, taken from the preface, shew us the nature of the change which the author's sentiments experienced, and the gradual developement of his present opinions and practice:

"I was

'I was induced to make the trials now mentioned by the fatality of the disease, by the fluctuating and opposite theories respecting its nature, by the want of any rule or principle to regulate the treatment, and by observing that recoveries took place under every variety of practice, sometimes even where no medicine whatever was administered.—I had finally adopted the purgative and sedative as the most beneficial plan, when the valuable work of Dr. Clutterbuck fell into my hands; — his reasoning appeared to me so conclusive, and his remarks so just on the use of blood-letting in fever, that I resolved, on the first favourable opportunity, to make the experiment.'

He then informs us that he entered on the plan of bleeding and purging in the fever-hospital; that in the first trials he felt considerable anxiety for the success of the new remedy, but that its good effects were so apparent that he quickly obtained full confidence in it, which every subsequent event has tended to confirm.

Dr. Mills commences with a short view of the theory of typhus-fever; in which, reasoning from the effects of remedies, he deduces the nature and cause of the symptoms, and determines them, as we remarked above, to be of an inflammatory tendency. Those circumstances which we were in the habit of referring to debility, he imputes to oppression; and when the pulse is weak and languid, and the muscular powers are generally impaired, he conceives that these effects do not depend on any absolute deficiency of sensibility or irritability, but on an over-excitement of the whole or some part of the system; that they are secondary; and that the powers of life are not really lessened, but only prevented from coming into action. His hypothesis is thus illustrated:

'Suppose a strong, vigorous man, placed under a great weight, he cannot move; take off the weight, his strength remains unimpaired. Here there was no diminution of his physical powers; these powers were oppressed, not reduced.'

In the next paragraph, the application of his hypothesis is detailed:

'Thus it is with fever; at the onset it overpowers the system, but the strength is unbroken. This will sufficiently appear from the remedies that are most effectual; these are emetics, cathartics, blood-letting, and sedatives; but these remedies debilitate the healthy body, and, if the strength be already diminished, they reduce it still lower; yet these very remedies cure fever. Now, if the debility were real in the incipient stage of fever, could it be removed by debilitants? To cure a distemper, are we to have recourse to the cause by which it was produced? The drunkard falls from his chair in a fit of apoplexy, he cannot move; here is a case of over-excitement, yet the apparent debility is extreme. Is the disease to be cured by increasing the quantity of wine by which it was excited?'

Dr. Mills's theory of fever is, at least as well founded as those of his predecessors; and certainly it has the merit of being much more simple. He has had the discretion to make the hypothetical part of his work very short, and the detail of cases very minute; so that, if we can depend on the accuracy and correctness of the reports, we may draw our own conclusions from them.

The species of fever, which in modern language is termed Typhus, is here divided into several varieties, according to the particular organ of the body which is affected with the inflammatory tendency; and, from this circumstance, they are termed Cephalic, Pulmonic, Hepatic, Gastric, Enteritic, or Cardiac. Some distinction of this kind is perhaps commonly present in the mind of most practitioners, who, in treating fever, venture to go beyond the mere routine of the lecture-room. It is admitted that some fevers have a great determination to the brain, others to the liver, and others to the bowels: but Dr. Mills has brought these varieties more distinctly into view, and at the same time has simplified the subject by referring them to the same cause, modified only by accidental circumstances. The cases are related at considerable length, the symptoms observed from day to day are enumerated, the remedies are stated, their effects are carefully noted, and, when the disease proved fatal, an account of the appearances on dissection is added. In this way is related the history of some hundreds of cases which fell under Dr. M.'s own treatment, chiefly in the fever-hospitals. His success is undoubtedly very remarkable, and, we believe, greater than any on record, where the disease was fully formed before it came under the care of the practitioner.

The first set of cases consists of such as we should call simple typhus-fever; many of them were immediately produced by contagion; and the others, in which the direct effects of contagion could not be observed, seemed to be brought on by exposure to cold, fatigue, intoxication, or some similar occurrence. The patients were received under the care of Dr. Mills at very different periods of the disease; some of them after it had made considerable progress: but the treatment was very similar and uniform, consisting of nothing but repeated small bleedings, and the daily use of rather powerful purgatives. The recovery commenced at different dates: when the state of convalescence was once begun, it was soon completed; and seldom did any relapses occur. In these cases, as we have already observed, it was conceived that a specific inflammatory determination to the brain took place; and we are therefore naturally led to inquire how far the symptoms that have been described

described resemble phrenitis, in which an inflammation of the brain is the acknowleged origin of the disease. On this point, the author makes the following remarks:

'From the regular presence of certain symptoms, we are enabled to form a correct idea of the disorder to which they belong; the characteristic symptoms of brain-fever have been already enumerated; let us now compare these symptoms with the phenomena of phrenitis: here we find head-ach and delirium, the external senses perverted, the intellectual powers disturbed; the face is flushed, the temples throb, there is intolerance of light and suffusion of the eyes, the pulse is frequent, the tongue foul, the excretions are preternatural; but the same phenomena are present in brain-fever, the diseased action, therefore, cannot be different;—the analogy, however, does not cease here; luxury, intemperance, and indolence predispose to both diseases, and both are excited by spirituous liquors, exposure to the rays of a vertical sun, intense cold, violent exercise, the stronger passions, &c. &c. The same progress, likewise, may be observed in both, now violent, running on almost instantaneously to effusion, suppuration, or mortification; again, more slow and deceitful, appearances excite little alarm; all is hope and confidence; yet a few days, perhaps a few hours, and the illusion vanishes; in the treatment, moreover, the remedies, which prove the most beneficial in the one complaint, are equally efficacious in the other, as blood-letting, general and topical, the use of purgatives, the application of blisters, diluents, and a low regimen.'

Perhaps many of our readers may agree with us in thinking that the comparison thus instituted by the author is not extremely favourable to his own opinion; since, although in this as in many other instances, the shades of disease may run into each other, so as to render it difficult to draw the exact line of separation between those which approach the middle state, yet we apprehend that the extremes are sufficiently dissimilar. Moreover, we do not deem it enough to account for this dissimilarity to say that, in what we usually call phrenitis, 'the membranous or more sentient part' being affected will cause more acute symptoms, but that, 'if the medullary substance of the brain be diseased, little or no pain may be felt.'

Dr. Mills, we must add, is not very fortunate in his endeavours to prove that inflammation and fever depend on the same diseased state of the system. It is certainly no proof of this identity that inflammation is always attended with fever; this may be true, but the contrary proposition does not follow as a matter in course. Even were this latter proved, and were we obliged to admit that fever is always accompanied by inflammation, yet the want of correspondence between the degrees of the febrile and the inflammatory state is not favourable to the opinion, 'that the diseased action which excites fever is inflammatory.'

flammatory.' When we observe the greatest violence of fever sometimes marked with only faint and evanescent symptoms of inflammation, we may regard them as standing to each other in the relation of cause and effect, but certainly not as originating in the same morbid state of the system. The author mentions five objections which have been urged against his idea of the identity of fever and inflammation, and endeavours to refute them. His answers to them are, on the whole, satisfactory: but we think that stronger objections might be raised than any which he has noticed; and one of these we have mentioned above.

This part of the subject concludes with a number of authorities; which are adduced to prove that the existence of inflammatory appearances, as attendant on fever, is an occurrence pointed out by many of our most esteemed practical writers. The authorities brought forwards are very powerful: but, even were they considered as sufficient to establish this point, they would not prove the truth of Dr. Mills's hypothesis. He does not merely suppose that fever is attended with inflammatory symptoms, but thinks that fever and inflammation depend on the same 'diseased action.' The quotations which he makes in favour of the practice of bleeding, in many of the varieties of fever, are valuable, and seem to give countenance to his own practice; yet here we cannot but remark how apt we are to accommodate our treatment of diseases rather to their names than to their nature.

As an exemplification of Dr. Mills's pathological reasoning, we shall quote his observations on the use of wine in fever:

'The doctrine that fever consists essentially in debility and in a putrescency of the fluids, has led, among other remedies, to the use of wine, which has been and still is administered in large or in small quantity, according to the features of the disease, or the opinion of the practitioner; and so much are the public and the faculty prepossessed in its favour, that some time must elapse before its properties be duly appreciated or a check be given to its administration; yet, if we could but dispassionately reflect on the inflammatory nature of fever, and on the stimulating properties of wine, we would conclude that it is detrimental. It must be acknowledged, indeed, that the symptoms are often deceitful, such are, the prostration of strength, the loss of appetite and the feebleness of the pulse: but these symptoms are not the consequence of debility but of over-excitement; evacuants, therefore, and not stimulants are indicated.—Wine stimulates the nerves and fibres of the palate, fauces, œsophagus and stomach; the vascular system is excited, the pulse is quickened, the face is flushed and the spirits are exhilerated; the skin becomes hot, the tongue parched, the thirst urgent; such is the effect of a certain quantity of wine; increase this quantity, and the temples throb, the head

head ache, and the eyes become suffused; next, succeed stupor, vertigo, prostration of strength, and, sometimes, apoplexy, mania, epilepsy, fever or inflammation of one or more of the viscera; such are the stimulating effects of wine, which, in the first instance, gives a temporary degree of strength, in the second, produces debility and the diseases of over-excitement.—Can such a remedy be administered with safety in such a disease as fever?—That some recover who have taken largely of wine, no one will question; the recovery, however, cannot justly be ascribed to the wine, but to the mildness of the attack, the strength of the constitution, or the counter-operation of the medicines usually exhibited; we may also remark, that treat our patients as we will and they frequently recover; and the question is not always, what medicine was most useful, but what was least pernicious;—that wine, however, is inadmissible in fever, more especially at the commencement, may be inferred, not only from the inflammatory tendency of the remedy, but from the superior success which attends the use of evacuants and sedatives.'

We have hitherto confined our strictures to the first variety of fever, which the author calls Cephalic; and we have been led to extend them so far, as to leave no room for examining the remaining part of the volume. The same kind of reasoning, however, will apply to the whole; though it is certain that, in those varieties in which the chest, liver, bowels, &c. are more particularly affected, we can more readily allow of the presence of topical inflammation, and of the abstraction of blood, than in those in which the brain is the principal seat of disease.

The general conclusion which we have formed, after the perusal of this work, is that Dr. Mills's hypothesis is erroneous, and his practice dubious, as applied to the usual form of typhus-fever. It may be readily conceived that the greatest part of the patients, who were admitted into the Dublin fever-houses, were persons previously of robust constitutions and hardy habits; and that they would *endure* a species of treatment which could not be borne by the inhabitants of our metropolis. We must likewise remark that, in our opinion, the author attributes too much to the bleeding, and too little to the purgatives: but, in return, we shall be rather disposed to concede to him one very important point, viz. that the use of wine and other strong stimulants in fever (a practice founded on the hypothesis of putrescency) is seldom necessary, and often injurious.

ART. XV. *Further Facts relating to the Care of the Poor, and the Management of the Work-house, in the City of Norwich*, being a Sequel to a former Publication. By Edward Rigby. 8vo. pp. 101. 4s. Boards. Johnson and Co.

THE inspection of work-houses has generally been committed to persons whose time and attention were, in a great measure, engaged by their private concerns; and the consequence has been that, without any reproach to the understanding or the integrity of those individuals the plan and management of the establishments have been fundamentally defective. In their meetings, a general disposition prevails to follow old rules, and to give way in their decisions to first impressions. Hence the popularity of the mistaken plan of assembling the poor in work-houses. The notion that the poor, by being concentrated in one spot, would be more easily controuled and kept at labour, was an idea of that direct kind which suited common habits of reasoning; and the reflection that the poor would exert most industry when left (after having received a specific pittance) to provide for themselves,—with the farther consideration that a humble cottage, if occupied by a single family, is less unhealthy than a large building with many tenants,—was by no means obvious to such apprehensions. The result of all this has been that government has but lately arrived at the discovery of the important fact, "that one of the means to which we must look for the improvement of our system of poor-laws is the abolition of work-houses." *

Mr. Rigby's work exhibits a practical exemplification of the truth of this conclusion. The circumstances stated in it appear to have been accompanied by differences between that gentleman and the guardians of the Norwich work-house; a controversy with the merits of which, as a personal question, we have nothing to do. Our attention was fixed on the publication by the extent and respectability of the city to which it relates; and our object is to draw, from this particular case, a few lessons that are calculated, we hope, to be useful to the public at large.

The author, we learn, is a medical man of long established practice in Norwich. The former publication, mentioned in his title-page, is of old date, having been a sequel to his discharge of the office of guardian to the work-house above twenty-five years ago. In that capacity, he detected some gross abuses in the purchase and distribution of provisions, and experienced the fate which is common to reformers, in not being re-elected.

* Rose on the Poor Laws, p. 33.

Subsequently,

subsequently, viz. in the year 1784, an act of parliament had been obtained to erect a work-house on a large scale, and to authorize for that purpose the borrowing of the sum of 30,000l. Mr. Rigby, strongly impressed by his professional experience with the evils of crowding the poor into a work-house, exerted himself to the utmost to prevent the execution of this mistaken project; and he explained to his townsmen that the indiscriminate mixture of the unfortunate with the dissolute was destructive of morals, while the admission of a great number into one building had an inevitable tendency to engender disease. With regard to expence, while every pauper in the work-house was found to cost three shillings and sixpence a-week, after the deduction of earnings, the allowance to those out of doors scarcely exceeded one-third of that sum; and that this is a general case throughout the kingdom is apparent from the official returns, from which the inference has been drawn that the "annual loss to the public on work-house paupers may be estimated at 9l. a-head." These arguments eventually prevailed with the people of Norwich: after some opposition, and great delay, the plan of a new work-house was abandoned; and a determination was formed to confine the disbursement of the public money to the alteration of the existing building.

This point being carried, Mr. Rigby's attention was next allotted to the treatment of the sick in the work-house. Dr. Haygarth having proved that, at a certain distance from a patient, (less than was previously believed,) there is no danger of infection, the rules for managing the sick in public buildings have been of late greatly simplified; and a very clear and consolatory exemplification of these rules is to be found in an interesting report by Dr. Ferriar of Manchester, in the third volume of his medical works. Mr. Rigby's recommendations for the improvement of the Norwich work-house were directed to an increase of the number of apertures for ventilation; to the adoption, on all proper occasions, of vaccine inoculation; and to the formation of a tepid bath. On scrutinizing the distribution of provisions, it was found that the quantity of bread and meat, said to be delivered to each pauper, considerably exceeded the allowance at a former period. It was therefore recommended that the master of the work-house should receive an increased salary, in lieu of all perquisites; that the books should be kept so as to furnish the means of taking, without difficulty, a general view of the mode of management; and, finally, that the inmates, instead of having their victuals carried up to their close and ill-cleaned bed-rooms, should, as far as it was possible, dine together.

Mr.

Mr. Rigby's exertions were soon afterward seconded by an accidental visit from Mr. Neild, secretary to the Society for the Relief of Persons imprisoned for small Debts. This benevolent gentleman (whose recent death is a loss to the community) is well known as having taken an active share in the object of that society, and as the adviser of many humane and judicious arrangements in the economy of prisons and work-houses. We insert a short extract from his letter, containing a report of several work-houses in Norfolk:

'At Thetford I found the poor farmed at three shillings per head, per week, clothing included. The keeper is a wool-comber. The house is old; the beds and bedding, and rooms, very clean, and well ventilated; all the children had shoes and stockings on, their hands, face, and necks clean, (the boys at Bury were all barefoot, bare-legged, and dirty,) and some attention had been paid to their education, but they were too young, and had been there too short a time to make much progress. At Lynn the children were at church morning and afternoon; their singing delightful; they were decently and uniformly clothed, and properly fed (not farmed) by the parish; religiously educated, and, as far as my observations, well attended to. At Aylsham, the poor-house is one of the best I have seen, and stands a lasting monument of the liberality and humanity of the gentlemen concerned.'

This statement was followed by a very unpleasant report of the Norwich work-house. We spare our readers the detail of the disgusting particulars, and copy merely the concluding paragraph of Mr. Neild's letter:

'The following account of the deaths in this work-house, for two years and nine months last past, proves two things; first, that the wretched state in which I found it was neither an accidental nor a temporary circumstance; secondly, that nothing is more destructive to human life than shutting up so many persons in close rooms, surrounded by every species of filth, and where they constantly breathe the foulest air.

Deaths.	*Average No. in the House.*	
1803.—93	-	558—Deaths, one in six.
1804.—81	-	424—Deaths, nearly one in five.
9months in 1805.—85	-	553—Deaths calculated for the whole year, is one in five.'

We need scarcely wonder at this extraordinary mortality, on learning, among other things, that the sick were intermixed with the rest of the paupers in their crowded apartments; the rooms originally intended for the reception of patients having long ceased to be applied to their proper purpose. Such, in these public buildings, is often the fate of regulations which are originally good! A perpetual desire to lessen personal exertion

exist on the part of the servants in these establishments, and the individuals charged to superintend them are often little better. With regard to the point in question: Mr. Rigby produces (p. 59.) an affidavit from one of the city-surgeons; declaring that, on applying to the work-house committee for a separate room for the sick, he experienced a refusal, and was even taunted with having made the application for the purpose of saving himself trouble in going round the different apartments!

The remaining part of this tract contains rather more satisfactory information. It relates a number of visits made to the work-house by Mr. Rigby, and his satisfaction at the adoption (though frequently slow and reluctant) of several of his suggestions. He sums up the chief circumstances in this paragraph:

'If I have suffered the mortification of repeated disappointment in my well-meant efforts, I have not been without some satisfaction;—much good has been lately effected; the economy of the work-house has been improved; a system of cleanliness and regularity has succeeded a system of filth and disorder; and, (which has materially contributed to this salutary change, by rendering it more permanently practicable,) a reduction of the numbers in the work-house has taken place, by an extension of the less exceptionable mode of out-door relief; the new work-house has not been built;—that giant evil, which threatened to have been so extensive and so enduring in its baneful influence, has been averted; a moral attention has been excited towards the poor children in the house, and, as before observed, they are now systematically taught to read and write; and notwithstanding the inexplicable obduracy of the guardians on this subject, as affecting the poor at large, the poor in the work-house have been effectually protected from the small-pox, by a regular system of vaccination.'

Since the introduction of vaccination, the natural small-pox is no longer kept up among the poorer classes, as formerly, by a communication of infection from the inoculated children of their richer neighbours. One consequence, however, of an exemption otherwise so fortunate, is that, when the poor persist in neglecting vaccination, a greater number of their children are exposed at one time to variolous infection, if the disease happens to be suddenly introduced. An affecting example of this occurrence is detailed in a letter from Mr. Rigby to the work-house committee; in which he urges the propriety of sending to the Infirmary any strangers who may happen to arrive in the city when affected with the disease.

'On the Monday of the assize week in 1807, Mr. Robinson, one of your surgeons, called upon me, in the morning, to say he had been to visit a poor woman at the Waggon and Horses, in St. Giles's-street, who had just been brought thither from the London waggon, and

and that she was in the eruptive stage of the small-pox, and he was very anxious that I should advise him how she could be disposed of. I told him I feared I had now no power, either as a magistrate or as a guardian, to direct in such a case, as a late resolution of the Court had rescinded the orders, under which, heretofore, patients under such circumstances had been sent to the infirmary; but I wished him to apply to Mr. Simpson, the clerk of the court of guardians, to Mr. Lubbock, the mayor's justice-clerk, and to the chief magistrate himself; all which Mr. Robinson took the trouble of doing, but to no purpose;—there was no place to which she could be sent, and she was under the necessity of going through this infectious disease, at a public house, in a public street, and at a public time, when there was a more than usual number of strangers in the city. The consequences were obvious;—a person in the public house caught the disease, from whom it was communicated to another in the neighbourhood; and thence it gradually spread to the several parts of the city, and continued its ravages among the poor to the end of the year 1809; during which time no less a number of deaths, from this dreadful disease, than two hundred and three, were recorded in the weekly bills of mortality. The greatest fatality was in 1808; in some weeks ten, thirteen, and even fifteen died; and from June, 1808, to June, 1809, the number of deaths was 171.'

All these lives were lost by a complaint which would not have been diffused in the city, had the sick stranger been sent to an insulated place like the Infirmary.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MARCH, 1814.

NOVELS.

Art. 16. *The Good Aunt:* including the Story of Signor Aldersonini and his Son. By Harriet Ventum, Author of "Charles Leeson," &c. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Chapple. 1813.

We can recommend this tale as a moral and a tolerably interesting performance; though, as it seems to be intended for young ladies, the story of Signor Aldersonini and his profligate son might have been better omitted. In page 22. *tenancy* is put for *tenantry*; and in page 74. 'she was treated *unfriendly*' is an error of grammar.

Art. 17. *The Brothers in High Life;* or, The North of Ireland. By Mrs. D. Johnson. 3 Vols. 12mo. Kearsley. 1813.

Surely, this can only be a specimen of "High Life below Stairs," since one of 'The Brothers' takes leave of his mother by saying, 'Your Ladyship! farewell.' Throughout the book, the expressions are equally vulgar, and the grammar is glaringly incorrect. Even the moral tendency of the work deserves no commendation, and the conduct of the best characters is regulated neither by sense nor principle.

Art.

Art. 18. *L'Intriguante;* or, The Woman of the World. By A. F. Holstein, Author of "Isadora of Milan," &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. Boards. Colburn. 1813.

Although this picture of a 'Woman of the World' is highly coloured, it is probably in many parts as good a resemblance as it is amusing. Lady Olivia's lessons of conduct to young ladies are happily delivered; and, though we wish, for the sake of morality, that the artifices of her pupils had been painted as less successful, we must acknowlege that the tale keeps curiosity alive. It also presents something new in its plan, since one of the principal characters is *hanged* in the first chapter. — We are sorry, however, to observe no improvement in that hyperbolical and incorrect style of writing, by which this author disfigures the ingenious fictions which he is capable of producing, and calls forth our remonstrances in every report of his works.

Art. 19. *Liberality and Prejudice*, a Tale. By Eliza A. Coxe. 12mo. 3 Vols. 18s. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1813.

"In vain an author would a name suppress,
From the least hint a reader learns to guess;
Of children lost our novels sometimes treat,
We never care, — assured again to meet."

These lines were brought to our recollection by the concealments and difficulties of the present tale, which are managed with too little art to excite even momentary suspence in a hackneyed novel-reader. Neither can they afford a lesson of morality, since the principal female character has

"A father to be shunned and feared;"

and she is represented as disobeying him, and in fact causing his death, and without detriment to her happiness or diminution of her excellence.

The language of this novel is also incorrect. For instance, the pronouns *thou* and *you* are often employed promiscuously in the same sentence. Vol. i. p. 5., '*himself* and his servant' are stated to have been murdered; and p. 9., the occasional visitors at a house are said to find it 'a convenient residence.' — In Vol. ii. p. 29., 'I *recommend* you to be cautious' is written for I *advise;* page 43., '*conscienceness*' for consciousness, &c. &c. Mrs. Brownley is unnecessarily vulgar; and the cockney-confusion of *v* and *w* is improperly assigned to a constable on the banks of the Wye.

Art. 20. *The Heroine;* or Adventures of a fair Romance Reader. By Eaton Stannard Barrett, Esq. 3 Vols. 12mo. 18s. Boards. Colburn. 1813.

The idea of this work is not new, since the pernicious effects of indiscriminate novel-reading have been already displayed by Mrs. Lenox in "The Female Quixote," and by Miss Charlton in the pleasing story of "Rosella:" but the present tale is more extravagant than either of those works, and *the heroine*'s cruelty towards her father indisposes the reader for being interested in her subsequent

fate. Mr. Barrett may also be censured for not confining his ridicule to allowable subjects: "What should be great he turns to farce," both in his frequent sarcasms on the clergy and in his ludicrous parodies of scenes taken from our best novels: although it might be presumed that, if Cherubina's reading had been limited to respectable works of fiction, or if these had made the chief impression on her mind and memory, she would not have fallen into the follies which she commits. Still, however, her adventures are written with great spirit and humour, and they afford many scenes at which

"To be grave exceeds all power of face."

Art. 21. *Pierre and Adeline;* or the Romance of the Castle. By D. F. Haynes, Esq. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1814.

It might be difficult to produce two volumes, into which more faults are compressed than may be found in the Romance before us. In Vol. i. page 121., a lover and his mistress 'rejoice at discovering *a uniform monotony of sentiment* in their minds;' and the lady apologizes for not '*making frankness*' in her answer. At page 130. it is said that 'the Count was visibly dejected, yet *his manly air taught him* to suppress his rising sorrow.' — In Vol. ii. p. 78., we hear of '*criminal liberality* of sentiment;' and in page 256. a village priest is called a *prelate*. In the first volume, page 32., we read as follows: 'So great was Adeline's grief that her mind made a dead stop, and dismissed the empty aid of the senses;' and we were also tempted to make a dead stop at this passage: yet we toiled on, and found the same expression thus modified in page 185.: 'De Gernier's ideas wandered from subject to subject, till at last they made a dead halt at the subject of his family.'

The story itself is lame and improbable; and, not to weary our readers by citing more faults, we may say that

"But one is past
Through all this work—'tis fault from first to last."

Art. 22. *The Splendour of Adversity*, a Domestic Story. By the Author of "Black Rock House," "Winter in Bath," &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1814.

Though the title of this book may be deemed affected, the tale will be found simple, and rather pleasing; some of the characters are drawn with skill and discrimination; and the tendency of the whole is favourable to virtue. We must, however, point out a few expressions which should be corrected, if an opportunity be afforded by a second edition of the work. Vol. i. p. 237., 'Augustus has *learnt* his mother,' instead of *taught*. — Vol. ii. p. 75., '*heightening countenance*,' for *heightening colour*; p. 107., '*to listen at* the roaring of a bull;' 126., '*neither* the one *or* the other,' &c. &c.

POETRY.

Art. 23. *The Ideot Boy*, a Spanish Tale of Pity; and other Poems. By Edward Ball. 8vo. Pamphlet. Printed at Norwich. 1814.

How it happens that verse-making and vanity are so nearly related, we do not undertake to explain: but the fact is too evident to be denied,

denied that when a man has an itch for rhiming he longs to turn author, and pleads the sollicitation of friends, backed perhaps by a subscription, in excuse for *hastily* presuming to appear before the tribunal of the public. We suspect that Mr. Ball will find, as many have found before him, that this experiment ends in mortification; since fastidious readers rarely sanction the mistaken approval of country-friends. If we perform our duty, we cannot offer an opinion of his Ideot-Boy which would be gratifying to him, though it is not without merit as a simple and pathetic tale: but we shall not pronounce judgment, and merely produce evidence of Mr. Ball's powers by quoting a stanza or two:

' " Ah! how shall I," she weeping said,
" An angry parent's curses bear,
When I am pensive, rich, and sad
Without your gentle tongue to cheer."

' " O Lady! all the valley *sigh*,
For such an helpless spirit fled,
Who can restrain the humid eye?
Know Clara's Ideot Boy is dead." '

Art. 24. *Translation of the Ninth Canto of Voltaire's Henriade.* 12mo. Pamphlet.

The author of this specimen of a new translation of the Henriade has not given his name, nor that of any publisher; nor has he assigned a motive for his undertaking. On comparing it with previous versions, we perceive no reason for encouraging him to finish his design.

Art. 25. *Talavera.* Ninth Edition. To which are added, other Poems. 4to. 15s. Boards. Murray.

We spoke briefly of this poem, by Mr. Croker of the Admiralty, in our lxist Vol. p. 444. It was then published under the title of *The Battles of Talavera;* and we are induced to mention it again by the alterations, improvements, and additions which it has received, which have swelled it into the 'book-like shape,' and by its popularity and merit. Indeed, it does possess *great original merit*, though it is of the GENUS *Gazette*, SPECIES *Marmion;* and it forms one of the best, perhaps the very best " copies of Verses" on contemporaneous events, which has appeared within our recollection. Yet the close imitation of Mr. Scott, both in versification * and general manner, is a considerable drawback on our pleasure; and we have another objection of still more importance to the whole effect of the poem. The news-paper has been beforehand with the epic; and it is *now* Morning Post, *now* Mr. Croker, throughout the performance. We cannot consent that the dignity of poetry should be lowered to a

* In a note, Mr. Croker observes that the practice of breaking the octosyllabic verse into distichs and ternaries is very antient in English poetry, and refers to the Chester mysteries, anno Domini 1328: he also tells us that, in 1803, he published a poem in this measure; and consequently that in this instance he has not committed larceny on Marmion.

familiar acquaintance with the every-day beings who surround it. Far removed from the degrading suspicion of any party-bias; uncontaminated by the *routines* or the *rouleaus* of office; placed at an impartial distance from the events which he describes; and really capable of appreciating the mellowing effect of distance on those events;—a being, in short, of another *age* as well as another *place;*—such should be the genuine poet.—We before gave a short specimen of the battle-scenery, and we turn now to a refreshing incident which Mr. Croker, with most laudable satisfaction, states in a note to have really taken place in the middle of the conflict; and to which he has lent new attractions in his very beautiful versification.—We think that we shall not be accused of too high panegyric on the following lines:

'There is a brook, that from its source,
High in the rocky hill,
Pours o'er the plain its limpid course,
To pay to Teio's monarch force
Its tributary rill;
Which, in the peaceful summer tide,
The swarthy shepherd sits beside,
And loitering, as it rolls along,
In cadence pours his rustic song;
Carol of love or pious chaunt,
Or tale of knight and giant gaunt,
And lady captive held;
Or strains, not fabled, of the war,
Where the great champion of Bivar
The Moorish pagan quell'd.
But now, no shepherd loiters there—
He flies, with all his fleecy care,
To mountains high and far,
And starts, and breathless stops to hear
Borne on the breeze, and to his fear
Seeming, at every gust, more near,
The distant roar of war.

'But on the streamlet's margin green
Other than shepherd forms are seen;
And sounds, unlike the rustic song,
The troubled current rolls along;
When, of the cooling wave to taste,
From either host the warriors haste
With busy tread and hum:
You would have thought that streamlet bound
Were listed field or sacred ground
Where battle might not come.
So late in adverse contest tried,
So deep in recent carnage dyed,
To mutual honour they confide
Their mutual fates; nor shrink
To throw the cap and helm aside,
As, mingled o'er the narrow tide,
They bend their heads to drink,

Or,

Or, nature's feverish wants supplied,
Unarm'd, unguarded, side by side,
Safe in a soldier's faith and pride
They rest them on the brink.
They speak not — in each other's phrase
Unskill'd — but yet the thoughts of praise,
And honour to unfold,
The heart has utterance of its own;
And ere the signal trump was blown,
And ere the drum had roll'd,
The honest grasp of manly hands,
That common link of distant lands,
That sign which nature understands,
The generous feeling told:
The high and sacred pledge it gave,
That both were true, and both were brave,
And something added of regret,
At parting when so lately met,
And (not developed quite)
Some dubious hopes of meeting yet
As heaven their devious paths might set,
In friendship or in fight.'

If such passages as these were the frequent ingredients of newspapers put into verse, we should wholly alter our opinion of such compositions. We are not less delighted with the subjoined stanzas; in which a most natural feeling is expressed, as it ought to be, with all the simplicity and with all the vigour of nature:

'But not alone by Teio's shore,
Tho' heap'd with slain, and red with gore,
The tide of grief shall flow: —
'Tis not amidst the din of fight,
Nor on the warrior's crested height,
Death strikes his direst blow: —
Far from the fray, unseen and late,
Descend the bitterest shafts of fate,
Where tender love, and pious care
The lingering hours of absence wear
In solitude and gloom;
And, mingling many a prayer and tear,
Of sire, or child, or husband dear,
Anticipate the doom:
Their hopes no trophied prospects cheer,
For them no laurels bloom;
But trembling hope, and feverish fear,
Forebodings wild, and visions drear
Their anguish'd hearts consume.

'All tremble now, but not on all,
Poison'd with equal woe, shall fall
The shaft of destiny: — to some
The dreadful tale of ill shall come,
Not unallayed with good;

And they, with mingled grief and pride,
Shall hear that in the battle's tide
Their darling soldier sank and died; —
Died as a soldier should!
But in the rough and stormy fray,
Many are doomed to death to-day,
Whose fate shall ne'er at home be told,
Whose very names the grave shall fold;
Many, for whose return, in vain
The wistful eye of love shall strain,
In cruel hope that ne'er can die, —
In vain parental fondness sigh,
And filial sorrow mourn —
On Talavera's plain they lie,
No! never to return!'

The xxxivth stanza, on the death of the author's brother, (and which, though foreign to the poem, is well introduced,) is of the same stamp, character, and feeling, with the foregoing. These are the impulses (*omnium locorum atque temporum*) by yielding to which true poetry is produced, when nature has bestowed those additionally requisite qualities which this author seems largely to enjoy. We wish indeed, most sincerely, that, endowed as he is with genuine talents for poetry, it were possible for him to prefer the "*dulce utili*;" and to indulge the free flowing of a vein which it must be painful to suppress, when it is so strong and full.

'Songs of Trafalgar,' which bear the date of 1805, and which were well-known and much admired at the time of their first appearance, are reprinted at the close of this volume. One of them has transcendant merit, in our opinion; and so impressed are we with this idea, that we shall endeavour to contribute to its celebrity and its perpetuation in the minds of our countrymen, by giving an entire transcript of it in our pages.

'Rear high the monumental stone! —
To other days, as to his own,
Belong the Hero's deathless deeds,
Who greatly lives, who bravely bleeds.

'Not to a petty point of time
Or space, but wide to every clime
And age, his glorious fall bequeaths
Valour's sword, and victory's wreaths.

'The rude but pious care of yore
Heap'd o'er the brave the mounded shore;
And still that mounded shore can tell
Where Hector and Achilles fell.

'There, over glory's earthly bed,
When many a wasting age had fled,
The world's Great Victor pour'd his pray'rs
For fame, and monuments like theirs.

'Happy

'Happy the brave! whose sacred tomb
Itself averts the oblivious doom,
Bears on its breast unfading bays,
And gives eternity of praise!

'High, then, the monumental pile
Erect, for Nelson of the Nile!
Of Trafalgar, and Vincent's heights,
For Nelson of the hundred fights.—

'For Him, alike on shore and surge,
Of proud Iberia's power the scourge;
And half around the sea-girt ball,
The hunter of the recreant Gaul.

'Rear the tall shaft on some bold steep,
Whose base is buried in the deep;
But whose bright summit shines afar
O'er the blue ocean like a star.

'Such let it be, as o'er the bed
Of Nilus rears its lonely head;
That never shook at mortal might,
Till Nelson lanced the bolts of fight.

'(What time the *Orient*, wrapt in fire,
Blazed, its own seamen's funeral pyre,
And, with explosive fury riven,
Sprang thundering to the midnight heaven.)

'Around it, when the raven night
Shades ocean, fire the beacon-light;
And let it, thro' the tempest, flame
The star of safety as of fame.

'Thither, as o'er the deep below
The seaman seeks his country's foe,
His emulative eye shall roll,
And Nelson's spirit fill his soul.

'Thither, shall youthful heroes climb,
The Nelsons of an after-time,
And round that sacred altar swear
Such glory and such graves to share.

'Raise then, imperial Britain, raise
The trophied pillar of his praise;
And worthy be its towering pride,
Of those that live, of him that died!

'Worthy of Nelson of the Nile!
Of Nelson of the cloud-clapped Isle,
Of Trafalgar's and Vincent's heights,
Of Nelson of the hundred fights.'

In now bidding adieu to the poet, let him suffer us to repeat our earnest suggestion, extorted from us by sincere admiration of his genius,

nius, that the higher departments of human exertion have a claim on those who are highly gifted, and that κτημα ἐς ἀει, or *in æternum pingo*, should be the motto, and the memento, of every warm heart and enlightened intellect.

An engraving of a bust of Lord Wellington is prefixed to this volume.

Art. 26. *A Collection of Psalms and Hymns for Social and Private Worship.* 12mo. pp. 284. Boards. Longman and Co.

Psalmody has undergone considerable improvements. Some years ago, nothing more was attempted than rhyming versions of David's Psalms, which were accommodated with more or less skill to the use of Christian congregations: but, on a closer examination of the subject, it was found that many of the Bible-Psalms were not in their spirit suited to the mild dispensation of the Gospel; and also that they did not express those doctrines which are peculiar to the religion of Christ. This discovery led some persons to form collections of psalms and hymns, especially adapted to the circumstances of Christian worship; and several selections of this kind have been introduced into different congregations. The collection before us has been formed with care, and revised with taste and good sense. In several of the hymns by Watts and others, addresses are made to each of the three persons in the Holy Trinity: but, as many people now entertain doubts of the propriety of these addresses, and as, even in the occasional prayers introduced by the bishops into the service of the established church, no person but God the Father is invoked, it is prudent, in a volume of psalmody for general use, to construct every devotional hymn on the latter basis.

We are informed by the editors (the Rev. James Manning and Dr. L. Carpenter, co-pastors of a Dissenting congregation at Exeter,) that, 'having constantly kept in view that the God and Father of our Lord Jesus Christ is the only proper object of religious worship, they have studiously endeavoured to avoid all expressions directly implying opinions which are commonly controverted among those who are united by their adherence to this most important principle.' They assure us, also, that they 'have avoided all expressions which are calculated to convey, to uninformed minds, wrong ideas respecting the perfections of the Supreme Being, and the nature of religion, as well as such professions respecting the religious character as cannot, in all probability, be truly employed by the great bulk of a congregation; together with all invocations to inanimate objects.' This conduct is extremely judicious, and must be generally approved.

The hymns in this collection are 313 in number, and are arranged under the general heads of hymns of praise, — relating to Christian blessings, — relating to the usual circumstances of life, — relating to Christian duty, — for peculiar occasions, and — adapted for family or private worship. The majority are derived from former collections duly revised, but 16 are original. Though in general we approve of the revisions here introduced, we think that some of the pieces are open to farther amendment. At p. 139. the second line of the second stanza,

'Bid all its sorrows cease,'

would be well exchanged for

Its sorrows all suppress,

on account of the rhyme.

We think that at p. 195. the couplet,

'In vain our lips thy praise prolong,
The heart a stranger to the song,'

would be amended if we were thus to read:

In vain our lips thy praise prolong,
While hearts are strangers to the song.

We object to those careless stanzas, as in the hymn on the Immutability of God at p. 19., in which the first and third line do not rhyme.

On the whole, however, we are here presented with a pleasing and chaste collection of religious poetry, by which the Christian is enabled "*to sing with the spirit and with the understanding also.*"

Art. 27. *Hymns partly collected, and partly Original*, designed as a Supplement to Dr. Watts's Psalms and Hymns. By William Bengo Collyer, D.D. 24mo. 5s. 18mo. 6s. or Crown 8vo. 16s. Longman and Co.

The hymns in this volume are far more numerous than those in the preceding collection, (consisting nearly of one thousand,) but they have not been selected on the same sound principle which governed the Exeter compilers; nor do they manifest equal discrimination and poetic taste. Dr. Collyer appears to have spread as wide a net as he possibly could, and to have dragged together all that came in his way, both good and bad. We shall instance his want of attention to the graces of style and verse, in his selection from the hymns of the methodistic Newton, many years Rector of St. Mary Woolnoth, Cornhill. In the first hymn (p. 145.) from the religious muse of this clergyman, we meet with a couplet which would disgrace a school-boy:

'Many years have pass'd since *then*,
Many changes I have *seen*.'

In the second, in the same page, is another of equal character:

'Jesus who has bid thee pray,
Cannot, will not, say thee nay.'

When we turn over the leaf, we stumble on such lines as these:

'There thy *blood-bought* right maintain,
There without a rival reign.'

'Let me live a life of *faith*,
Let me die thy people's *death*.'

Can Dr. C. really think that such trash merited preservation and extensive circulation throughout the churches? — His qualifications for the office which he has undertaken will be best collected from the many original hymns with which he himself has swelled this volume. We shall copy a few stanzas. A hymn intitled *the Bible* (p. 592.) has the following:

' 'Tis a sword that cuts asunder
All my pride and *vanity*.
When abash'd I lie and wonder
That he spares a wretch like *me*.'

Addressing his God and Saviour, he says, (p. 594.)

' Leaning on thy *dear, faithful breast*
May I resign my breath;
And in thy *soft embraces* lose
" The bitterness of death." '

Dear, faithful breast, and *soft embraces*, are too amatory for a religious hymn addressed to the Eternal Spirit, who is " without parts and passions," according to the 39 Articles. Again, (p. 596.)

' Serene like Jacob I would die
And " gather up my feet,"
Would chide the lingering hours, — and fly
My Saviour-God to meet.'

The hymn intitled *Christ crucified* (p. 611.) thus concludes:

' In the *shelter of thy side*
Wounded by the cruel spear,
From impending wrath I hide,
Wrath which cannot reach me here.
From thy head, thy hands, thy feet
Flows the purifying flood;
See! *I plunge*, — I rise to meet
Justice reconcil'd by blood.'

We have heard of the Moravians and Methodists being reproved for the familiarity with which they speak of our Saviour's passion, but we did not expect Dr. Collyer to talk of *taking shelter in the side* of Christ as in a cave, and of *plunging into his blood* as into a bath.

As this divine is recently chosen to be minister of the congregation of rational Dissenters at Salters Hall, London, who formerly had for their pastors a Furneaux and a Farmer, we presume that he will not take thither this collection of hymns. We conjure him to discard the miserable whine of Methodism, and, whether in prose or verse, to set forth no divinity but such as will bear the touch of Ithuriel's spear.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 28. *Practical Observations on Various novel Modes of operating on Cataract*, and of Forming an artificial Pupil. By Robert Muter, Holbeach. 8vo. pp. 115. Underwood.

The author informs us in his preface that his work was immediately caused by the publication of Mr. Gibson; and we learn that Mr. Muter had, for some time, meditated an improvement in the method of operating on the eye, when Mr. Gibson's treatise appeared, which contained an account of a new operation, but different from that which Mr. Muter had projected.

Section I. contains an account of the lens in its diseased state, when it becomes the subject of an operation; and the 2d states the in-

struments which are employed in operating on it. In the 3d, the author describes his method 'of laying open the capsule of the lens through a puncture in the cornea,' in which he principally insists on the power possessed by the aqueous humor of dissolving the lens and its capsule, when broken down into small pieces. This opinion, which is now generally embraced, he illustrates by quotations from Scarpa and Hey. — The 5th section possesses a greater claim to originality; and we are disposed to think that the suggestion which it contains may be turned to practical advantage. Mr. M. proposes that, when it is intended to remove the lens by extraction, the capsule should be punctured some time previously to the operation, so that the size of the lens may be reduced; alleging that, consequently, when it is extracted, a smaller section of the cornea will be required for this purpose. It will be concluded that the smaller the opening is which is made in the cornea, the less will be the hazard of a subsequent operation; the less the probability of the lips of the wound being lacerated by the passage of the lens through them; and the less the chance of injury to the iris, or of the escape of any part of the vitreous humour. It may be objected to Mr. Muter's proposal, that two operations will be necessary instead of one: but, he asks, 'Is it therefore so desirable an object to accomplish at one complicated operation, what might more easily, and I believe more safely and certainly, be done at two? It is enough however to have proposed the puncture of the capsule of the crystaline previous to the section of the cornea, and if after experience shew it to be an improvement, I have no doubt of its being adopted.' He adds, 'I consider many of the inconveniences attending the usual mode of extraction to be avoided by diminishing the extent of the incision of the cornea, and reducing the size of the cataract by the preparatory puncture of its capsule, and admittance of the aqueous humor, while the operation itself will be performed more easily.'

Mr. M.'s remarks on the formation of the artificial pupil consist principally of observations on the methods proposed by others, and a comparison of their respective merits. He gives an account of the operations of Wenzel, Scarpa, Maunoir, and the late Mr. Gibson, and thus sums up his view of the subject:

'These are the principal modes of forming an artificial pupil with which I am acquainted, nor can we now be at a loss to appreciate their respective merits, or to estimate what degree of success might be expected to follow each mode of operating. Of all these, by far the neatest is that of Mr. Gibson. In those cases where there is no adhesion between the capsule and iris, or cornea and iris, I conceive his mode of removing a portion of the border of the iris, may always be practised with considerable ease and success. His mode of forming the artificial pupil in the centre of the iris is similar to that of Baron de Wenzel; the only difference is, that he advises the artificial pupil to be made larger. Janin's mode of operating is omitted, as being intermediate to those of Cheselden and Maunoir, and for a similar reason I have avoided mentioning the modes of other authors.'

Art. 29. *Description of the Retreat, an Institution near York, for Insane Persons of the Society of Friends;* containing an Account of

of its Origin and Progress, the Modes of Treatment, and a Statement of Cases. By Samuel Tuke. 4to. 12s. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Darton and Co., &c. 1813.

In the first and second chapters of this volume, we have a history of the establishment of the Retreat, and in the third a description of the building and its appendages. These, although less interesting than the remaining parts, are not without their use, and must indeed be of considerable value to any persons who may engage in the erection of a similar institution. The detail is sufficiently minute to enable us to follow every step of the progress; and much candour is displayed by Mr. Tuke in speaking of the merits and defects of the plan which his friends adopted. On this point, we shall only remark that the Retreat seems to possess a decided advantage over every other public receptacle for the insane, in the very great attention that has been paid to the ease and comfort of the patients, to the removal of all unnecessary restraints, and to the external aspect of the establishment, which conveys no idea of the gloomy purpose to which it is appropriated.

Chapter iv., on the medical treatment, must engage a larger share of our attention. The author states that the experience of the physicians has established two important points of practice; viz. that little benefit is to be obtained from the mere exhibition of medicine, and that the evacuating and reducing system, far from being generally useful, is seldom necessary. The following paragraph contains a valuable testimony in favour of the efficacy of the warm bath in insanity:

'There is, however, one remedy, which is very frequently employed at the Retreat, and which appears to have been attended with the happiest effects; and that is the warm bath. In the first years of the Institution, this remedy was not so much employed, as it is at present; for it was natural to pay most attention to such means, as medical writers, professing experience in the treatment of the maladies of the mind, had most strongly recommended; and it is not a little remarkable, that, of the various means proposed for the cure of these disorders, few, if any, are less recommended than the warm bath. This remedy, however, has been for several years, and it still is considered, at the Retreat, of greater importance and efficacy, in most cases of melancholia, than all the other medical means which have been employed.'

The method which is adopted to procure sleep for the insane deserves to be particularly noticed:

'The difficulty of obtaining sleep for maniacal patients, and the unpleasant effects frequently produced by the use of opium, are well known to medical practitioners. It occurred, however, to the sensible mind of the superintendent, that all animals in a natural state repose after a full meal; and, reasoning by analogy, he was led to imagine, that a liberal supper would perhaps prove the best anodyne. He therefore caused a patient, whose violent excitement of mind indisposed him to sleep, to be supplied freely with meat, or cheese and bread, and good porter. The effect answered his expectation; and this mode of obtaining sleep, during maniacal paroxysms, has since been very frequently and successfully employed. In cases where the patient

patient is averse to take food, porter alone has been used with evident advantage, always avoiding, in all cases, any degree of intoxication.'

Mr. Tuke informs us that the bad effects arising from cold, which are described as frequent occurrences in some lunatic asylums, are never experienced at York. After having mentioned the opinions of Crowther, Haslam, and Pinel, on this subject, he says, 'Happily, in the Institution I am now describing, this calamity is hardly known; and no instance of mortification has occurred, in which it has been, in any degree, connected with cold or confinement. Indeed, the patients are never found to require such a degree of restraint, as to prevent the use of considerable exercise, or to render it at all necessary to keep their feet wrapped in flannel.' He proceeds, however, to remark that maniacs are not exempted from the common effects of cold; and he adds, 'it is to be hoped, for the sake of humanity, that the opposite opinion, alike barbarous and absurd, will be entirely exploded.'

The chapter on moral treatment is the most important part of the work; since the moral management of the patients is the point to which the officers of the Retreat more particularly direct their exertions, and in which they appear to have been the most successful. This branch of practice is divided under three heads: '1. By what means the power of the patient to control the disorder is strengthened and assisted. 2. What modes of coercion are employed, when restraint is absolutely necessary. 3. By what means the general comfort of the insane is promoted.' Some very just remarks occur on the first of these topics, or the power of self-controul which the patient retains, even in very considerable degrees of derangement. When this can be called into action, it is found to be the most effectual means of counteracting the diseased state of the mind; and to be much more beneficial in its results than fear or corporeal restraint; either of which, although sometimes necessary, is calculated rather to exasperate than to soothe the over-excitement of the patient. The modes of coercion that are used in the York Retreat are always of the least irritating kind, and seem to be calculated to promote the present comfort as well as the ultimate recovery of the unfortunate sufferers. It is in the mildness of the coercive means, and the infrequency of their application, that the plans of this institution seem to differ from any other of which we have a published account; and which renders them so peculiarly deserving of the attention of all those who are engaged in this department of medical practice. The following paragraph is a sufficient proof of the justice of our remark: 'I feel no small satisfaction in stating upon the authority of the superintendents, that during the last year, in which the number of patients has generally been sixty-four, there has not been occasion to seclude, on an average, two patients at one time. I am also able to state, that although it is occasionally necessary to restrain by the waistcoat, straps, or other means, several patients at one time; yet that the average number so restrained does not exceed four, including those who are secluded.'

We need not say any thing farther to recommend this work to the attention of our readers. Without assuming to itself the merit of discovering

discovering any new medicines, or any new method of treatment, it will suggest many valuable ideas both to the physician and to the moralist, while it exhibits a very gratifying specimen of candour and benevolence.

It is with regret we add that, since we took up this volume, the destructive element of fire has consumed the building here described, and some of the unfortunate patients are even reported to have lost their lives.

Art. 30. *An Essay on the Signs of Murder in new-born Children.* Translated from the French of Dr. P. A. O. Mahon, Professor of Forensic Medicine in the Medical School at Paris. By Christopher Johnson, Surgeon, Lancaster; with a Preface and Notes by the Translator. 8vo. pp. 114. Longman and Co. 1813.

We have spoken with approbation of Dr. Mahon's work on *Legal Medicine* *, and we must recommend this essay on a part of its subject, not only for its intrinsic merit but as connected with a branch of knowlege, the neglect of which in this country is in some degree derogatory to the state of national science: we mean what is termed (to borrow the nomenclature of foreign authors, till we have a better of our own,) forensic medicine. This department of medical inquiry concerns the appearances exhibited by human bodies after a violent death, as leading to a discovery of the manner in which it has been effected. Whenever violent death becomes the subject of legal investigation, these appearances are necessarily among the subjects of discussion; and in a great variety of instances, in which the fact is involved in obscurity, the conclusions to be drawn from them form the principal guide in arriving at the truth. This is peculiarly the case whenever the circumstances attending the death admit a possibility, or a doubt, that it may have happened by accident, or been caused by the deceased himself.

Any person who has been in the habit of attending the proceedings of criminal courts, must have witnessed how often the difficulties, arising from ignorance or uncertainty on these points, have impeded the course of inquiry. No trials, however, so frequently give rise to questions of this kind as those in which the fact of child-murder comes under examination: since, here, concealment, which on other occasions always bespeaks violence as the cause of the death, may and often does occur from a different cause, viz. a desire to suppress any knowlege of the birth; which, in most of those cases in which the inquiry is necessary, is a powerful motive. The question as to violent death appearing in adults is confined to the causes of that death: but a previous and much more involved point is to be ascertained before the appearance of death in a new-born infant can be conclusively imputed to violence; and that is whether the infant were alive. In private and concealed births, this is extremely difficult to ascertain; and it is well known that many erroneous opinions have at various times been entertained, as to the tests by which that fact could be established. The most remarkable of these was the floating of the lungs which for a length of time was deemed an indisputable criterion of

* See Appendix to M. Rev. Vol. xxxviii. N. S. p. 507.

life

life. This opinion was exploded by our celebrated countryman, Dr. Hunter: but not till it is very probable that many unfortunate creatures had suffered by the hands of public justice, for a crime which they had not committed. It is indeed shocking to reflect that guilt, or innocence, should ever have been made to depend on a slight variation of specific gravity in the lungs, when more modern researches have discovered so many causes by which that gravity may be affected, and all independent of the existence of life.

There is still another consideration which enforces the necessity of cautious, accurate, and enlightened inquiry on this subject, and which demands no small degree of attention and study in order to pronounce an opinion that ought to have weight on so momentous a question. The situation of a woman, alone and unassisted at the moment of delivery, often precludes the care and precautions which are necessary to preserve the life of the infant; and its frame may even be subject to violence sufficient to cause death, without criminal act or intention on the part of the mother.

When these circumstances are taken into the account, it cannot but be matter of surprize that the attention of men of science has not been more closely directed to a solution of the difficulties attending this subject; and it excites our wonder the more, when we know that the science of Forensic Medicine has for some time been cultivated on the Continent as a distinct branch of that art. A professorship even exists at Paris under that title; a mode of encouraging the acquisition of this useful knowlege, which might without any dishonour be borrowed by a nation that justly boasts of the wisdom, caution, and accuracy, with which its investigation of crimes is conducted.

The reputation of M. Mahon is, we believe, too well established to require our farther eulogium; and we may venture to declare that he loses nothing of his character in the hands of his translator: who has executed his task in a manner that manifests a perfect acquaintance with the subject and the meaning of his author, and is as creditable to his capacity for the work which he has undertaken, as the selection of it is to his taste and judgment as a man of science. We feel, indeed, that we perform a part of our duty in recommending the knowlege contained in this pamphlet, and comprized in the short compass of little more than a hundred pages, as essentially necessary both to those who may be called by their profession to conduct inquiries connected with its discussion, and to those who may be nominated to assist those inquiries by their opinions and information.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 31. *Precursor to an Exposé on Forest-trees and Timber*, &c. (intended as a preliminary Introduction to a more enlarged Work upon the same Subject,) as connected with the maritime Strength and Prosperity of the United Kingdom and the Provinces. With an Appendix, containing an Outline of the Dimensions, Force, and Condition of the British Navy, compared with that of the Enemy. By Captain Layman, of the Navy. 8vo. pp. 70. with an Engraving. Asperne. 1813.

We

We bring this pamphlet before the eyes of our readers as treating on a subject of obvious interest and importance, and as being therefore well intitled to their attention; though possessing no merit on the score of composition, and being open to censure as glaringly deficient even in typographical correctness. After a dedication of his labours to the Duke of Clarence, as Admiral of the Fleet, the author undertakes to investigate the extent of our resources for a supply of navy-timber, and sounds the same note of alarm that we have so often heard, respecting the magnitude of our consumption and the inadequacy of our growth. Much, he says, might be saved in the use of timber, were our ships built with a greater regard to uniformity of plan. Instead of varieties in the shapes and sizes, amounting in one way or another to the number of 80, we ought, he thinks, to confine ourselves to, 1st, three deckers; 2dly, two deckers; 3dly, frigates; 4thly, corvettes; 5thly, tenders or small cruizers; 6thly, gun-boats of an uniform description. In comparing the relative merits of different modes of ship-building, he takes occasion to explain the great difference of strength between the ships engaged in our unfortunate actions with the Americans, and states that the broadside of the *Macedonian* was to that of the *United States* as 1000 to 1764, the latter being equal to even a British 74 on the old plan. We accordingly agree with Captain L. in acquitting the captains of our frigates from blame in those contests. He mentions, among other curious facts, that the Americans have gone so far as to raise the pay of seamen in their navy to a dollar per day; a temptation which may serve to account for the mortifying truth of their ships of war being manned in a certain proportion by British seamen. Whether they have succeeded in constructing their ships of durable timber, we are not informed: but, if the oak to the southward of Canada be of similar quality to that which we have imported from that province, there would be little reason for expecting permanency in its duration. Of all the recent examples of rapid decay in our ships of war, the most extraordinary is that of the *Queen Charlotte*, (a first rate,) which had actually begun to rot before she was taken out of dock. She was built of Canada oak, and pitch pine; and the use of heated stoves in her construction is said to have accelerated her decay.

The timber from the Rhine, purchased by our government about twelve years ago, has proved equally unprofitable; two ships of war, the *St. Domingo* and *La Hogue*, being found after a few years' service in a state of decay. It is some comfort to know that Bonaparte, with all his management, has fared as ill as ourselves; and that, though our war-advocates are silent on the point, his boasted Scheldt squadron is verging rapidly towards a natural death. The insufficiency of North American and German timber induces Captain Layman to direct the public attention towards India, where the durability of Teak is well known; and expeditious sailing may, with skilful workmanship, be attained in the case of this wood as well as in that of the softer produce of the north. The city of Surat is favourable for the construction of ships, as far as facility in obtaining timber and workmen is concerned: but the ground, as at Cochin, is of too loose a texture to support a heavy pressure in building on it. In Bombay,

Bombay, it is necessary to import the timber: but the accommodation of docks, and its easy access during the south-west monsoon, render it an eligible situation for ship-building. It was here, accordingly, that the *Minden*, a 74, and the *Salsette* frigate, were constructed, and with a success which gives encouragement to a perseverance in the teak-building plan. Prince of Wales's island, so much noticed ten years ago, is no longer the seat of a naval establishment: it has no proper timber in itself; and the teak of Pegu, the adjoining main land, is deemed inferior in duration to that of Malabar. Trincomalé, in Ceylon, is now our naval depot for the south of India; and it is hoped that the introduction of Chinese settlers may improve the adjacent ground, so far as to remove the objections hitherto so serious on the score of bad health.

Captain L. is not backward in recording the testimonies of public men in his favour; and it is amusing to see with what composure he makes (pp. 12. 17. 40.) repeated declarations of this nature, and how readily he believes in the sincerity of this complimentary language. He takes care (p. 31.) to claim the credit of introducing a body of Chinese labourers into Trinidad ten years ago, without chusing to explain the circumstances which rendered the plan unsuccessful. He relates, however, (p. 42.) his ill success in his propositions to public Boards, without any consciousness that the officers in question were in the right in giving a negative to his applications. The most satisfactory point in his publication, could we depend on it, is the assurance (p. 36.) that British oak, produced on the poorest soil, may be made to answer extremely well in ship-building. Another position, of more doubtful accuracy we apprehend, is the project (p. 35.) of giving durability to our oak by extracting the juices before the tree is felled.—Amid all his improvements, Captain L. is not disposed to contemplate the practicability of constructing a ship for the double purpose of war and commerce. The swift sailing required in the one, and the extent of stowage necessary in the other, are points as incompatible, in his opinion, as the junction of the 'draught of a dray-horse with the fleetness of a Newmarket courser.'—He recommends the separation, in a more complete form than at present exists, of the *materiel* and *personnel* of the department of the navy. The Admiralty, he thinks, should have little or no cognizance of the management of our dock-yards, but should commit the whole to the Navy-board; taking the precaution of making the officers in that department individually responsible for their respective shares.—He concludes by exhibiting sketches of the mode of altering several of our present ships of war, so as to fit them for contending with those of America and France. Ample lists of the different rates of our navy are also given; and, on the whole, the pamphlet contains more miscellaneous information than we might expect from its irregular and almost incoherent composition. We dissent most from Captain L. when he ventures to forsake professional and to tread on commercial ground. Like many other persons, he calls loudly for an exclusion of neutrals from our East India possessions: but it would be no difficult matter to shew that we are ourselves considerable gainers by the benefit obtained by our colonists

colonists in the East and West from their traffic with foreign countries. It tends materially to the augmentation of their capital, and of the sum which they vest annually in British manufactures.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 32. *Our Lord's Prayer relating to the Union subsisting between God his Father, Himself, and his Disciples explained.* Delivered at Taunton, July 14th 1813, before the Western Unitarian Society. By Thomas Howe. 12mo. Eaton.

That prayer of Christ to his Father, which the preacher here undertakes to explain, occurs in the Gospel of St. John, (chap. xvii. 20—23.) but not in any of the other Evangelists, and is of a peculiar character. Mr. Howe's commentary is completely satisfactory; and, through the whole discourse, he manifests so much good sense, ingenuousness, and true liberality, that we recommend it as a pattern to those who preach or write on controverted doctrines.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Our fair friend *Matilda* thinks that the sixth line of the opening stanza in Lord Byron's *Bride of Abydos*, quoted in p. 62. of our Number for January, is deficient in perspicuity;

"Where the flowers ever blossom, the beams ever shine;"

because the *Sun*, whose beams must be meant, has not been mentioned. The remark, however, strikes us as rather hypercritical, since the passage surely can never be mistaken. His Lordship's fair critic proposes this new reading,

"Know ye the land bearing Cedars and Vines,
Where the flowers ever blossom, the Sun ever shines:"

which we submit to the noble author's candid and *galant* consideration.

A very polite letter from C. C. H., author of the *French Phraseology* mentioned in our last Number, p. 213., irresistibly calls on us to withdraw some of the objections which we then made to a few of the phrases inserted in that work. On turning to the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie*, we certainly find that the contraction in the phrase *Maître ès Arts* is sanctioned by use in that particular denomination, and on very few other occasions; and *amiable*, which we regarded as a misprint for *aimable*, is given in that Dictionary as an allowable French adjective, though we believe it is more generally used adverbially, as *s'arranger à l'amiable, traiter les choses à l'amiable*, &c.—The Dictionary will also warrant C. C. H.'s explanation of *Elle n'a point de naturel:* but French gentlemen, whom we have consulted, rather incline to give it the sense of being *affected*, or *recherché*. With regard to *contention d'Esprit*, the author again relies on the Dictionary: but we have in like manner been told that it is rarely used in conversation. The Latin phrase is defended only because 'no English expression for it occurred to the author.' He might have said, *to write as fast as the pen will run;* as our correspondent A. F. T. suggests.

Mr. Macpherson is informed that the delay in the notice of his work has arisen from the long illness of one of our associates.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For APRIL, 1814.

ART. I. *Travels in Southern Africa*, in the Years 1803, 1804, 1805, and 1806. By Henry Lichtenstein, Doctor in Medicine and Philosophy, and Professor of Natural History in the University of Berlin; Member of several learned Societies; and formerly in the Dutch Service at the Cape of Good Hope. Translated from the original German by Anne Plumptre. 4to. pp. 383. 1l. 16s. Boards. Colburn.

NUMEROUS volumes have been published in English, French, German, and Dutch, on the subject of the Cape of Good Hope: yet Professor Lichtenstein is of opinion that room is still left for the labours of an additional traveller; and that much remains to be explained before the public can be enabled to form an accurate estimate of the nature of that part of Southern Africa. The object of former travellers has been, according to him, rather to afford entertainment than to promote utility; and not one of them, he alleges, has been sufficiently minute to render his narrative a guide to those who might venture, at a future season, to explore the same ground. Hence it has happened that almost every traveller in the Cape-territory has had occasion to find fault with his precursors; Le Caille and Menzel being severe on Kolbe, while Sparrman, in his turn, is not sparing of animadversions on those gentlemen. A more recent and better known traveller, Le Vaillant, fell under the lash of Mr. Barrow; and Professor L., on the other hand, is not slow in bringing charges against the narrative of our intelligent countryman. These accusations would have come with a better grace from the present author, had he not condescended to borrow largely from his predecessors, and particularly from him whom he has been most desirous of inculpating. Of matter, however, whether original or not, he was determined that his readers should have an ample share; and the writer who has laid down for himself the rule of confining lengthened description to important topics, and dismissing with the greatest dispatch those which are subordinate, cannot fail to be startled at the minute prolixity of this indefatigable compiler. A closely printed quarto would appear to most persons a sufficient space for the conveyance of such informa-

tion as his opportunities enabled him to collect: but no—*Dictori aliter visum*—the present is merely the precursor of a second volume, and even, as we learn from the preface, of a third. Amid all this accumulation of details, it is amusing to observe that the author feels no compunction for the tax imposed on the patience of the public. His only sollicitude is lest he should be deemed *too concise*, or be suspected of a design to misrepresent, and to escape detection by passing rapidly over his subject. Aware as he is of the expence which is attendant on a third quarto, it never occurs to him to compress his materials into smaller space, but he proposes to abstain altogether from printing those parts which he cannot be indulged in giving to the world in his favourite style of amplification.

Yet the author himself is or professes to be in great good humour with every circumstance relative to the composition and publication of his book. He declares that, from his earliest years, he had felt an ardent desire to visit new climes, and, above all, that part of the world which forms the subject of this volume: he went thither in the capacity of tutor to a son of General Janssens, the governor of the colony during the interval between 1802 and 1806, when it remained in the possession of the Dutch: he had an opportunity of making several excursions into the interior of the country: in the last of which he acted in the capacity of army-surgeon with the troops that were dispatched to oppose our expedition in the beginning of 1806; and he seems better pleased to dwell on these military arrangements, as fortunate occurrences for his personal observations, than to express concern at their political consequences to his friends and protectors. After all this display of opportunities of research, it will be found that his harvest of original information is very limited: he is much indebted not only to printed authorities, but to the MS. vouchers of the Dutch governor and the commissary-general; and, though he is styled in his title-page, 'Professor of Natural History,' we look in vain throughout the book for any store of new and interesting particulars in that department.

The volume opens with an account of a journey, in a north-west direction, performed with M. de Mist, the Dutch commissary-general; the object of which was to acquire a knowlege of the country, and to increase the popularity of the reinstated government among the mixed classes of the inhabitants. The Dutch have little idea of being contented with slender accommodation, or of setting out on a distant excursion without a multitude of precautions and arrangements. The retinue was consequently large, and Dr. L. enumerates the whole with all imaginable gravity, without forgetting the musician;

who, with the true precision of Hollanders, was confined to the specific duty of playing on the French horn for the purpose of rousing the travellers from their resting places, and of collecting the oxen from the pastures in which they stopped to feed. We perused with more satisfaction the author's account of the agreeable addition of female society in this long, and, in many respects, uncomfortable journey:

'Augusta de Mist, youngest daughter to the commissary-general, could not be restrained at his departure from Holland from following her father in his migration. This instance of true filial love, so delightful under every point of view, inspired her with fortitude to despise the dangers of the sea, and the inconveniences attending a long voyage, to leave her sisters and her friends, and readily to renounce the joys of a life of ease and social comfort, perhaps for many years. Many young women of nineteen, accustomed to live in the first circles in their own country, would have been staggered in their filial duty at the prospect of an interruption to these joys; but not so our traveller. Even the consolations which she found in the lively scenes of the Cape Town, which atoned to her in some measure for what she had abandoned, were equally given up to remain by the side of her father amid the sultry deserts of the interior of Africa. It seemed to her far preferable to share with him the dangers and difficulties inseparable from such a journey, than, at a distance, at home, to tremble for his life, to think of him in illness, perhaps, confided to the care of strange and mercenary hands.' — 'It is not less incredible than true, that through the whole journey, which was extended to nearly six months, never was at any time the least delay occasioned either by her or her female attendants, never was the setting off in the morning postponed on her account, never was any regulation whatever broken in upon. — One of her young friends from the Cape Town, Mademoiselle Versveld, had at her own particular desire been permitted to accompany her. With equal firmness did she support the toils, the hardships, and the inconveniences of the journey. Each was attended by a young European female servant.'

The whole company, with the exception of the men belonging to the waggons, travelled on horseback, and formed a cavalcade of twenty-five persons. The waggons were six in number, and contained an ample stock of rice, biscuit, dried fruits, coffee, candles, wine, medicines, cooking utensils, tents, and field-beds. The last two were requisite to guard against the danger from the bite of snakes and venomous insects, and to avoid the hazard of sleeping, even in the mild season, in the open air. October, which corresponds with our April, was the time of setting out, and is reckoned too late for beginning a journey, the middle of the day being intensely hot. One of the first inconveniences experienced by the travellers arose from the want of spring-water, the cause of which is very clearly explained in an extract from Mr. Barrow's travels given nine

years ago in our review of that work *. To avoid the effects of the heat on the cattle, the waggons set forwards in the evening, and arrived regularly at their halting stations about sun-rise. A halting station in the Cape-district consists of a house surrounded by a tract of ground, the property of the public, and appropriated as pasture for the cattle of travellers: but, though all persons on a journey are allowed access to these places, it is enacted, by way of preventing an abuse of this privilege, that no one shall be permitted to remain on the same spot more than two days. The distance between each station is half a day's journey. The dry and hot weather, and, above all, the ruggedness of the mountain-roads, render it necessary to make the Cape-waggons of very solid materials: in length they are not above fourteen feet, in breadth five. Carriages sent from Europe are found to last a very short time, and it is indispensable to have recourse to the hard wood of the country. We shall now give some account of the Cape-horses, and of the surprising dexterity of their drivers:

'People who have studied these matters, assert that an African horse is a third weaker in drawing than an European one, but the former have very much the advantage of the latter in climbing mountains and steep places. The Africans, besides, owing to their being accustomed from their youth to seek their nourishment upon dry mountains, are easily satisfied, and grow so hard in the hoofs that there is no occasion to shoe them. They do not bear very severe or long continued exertion, so that oxen are universally employed to draw heavy waggons destined to go any considerable distance from the Cape Town. — Most of them go a sort of short gallop, very agreeable to the rider as well as to the horse, and they will hold it out for a long time, if not unreasonably pressed forwards.' —

'All the address of our European waggon-drivers vanishes entirely before the very superior dexterity in this way shewn by the Africans. In a very brisk trot, or even in a gallop, they are perfect masters of eight horses, and if the road be indifferent they avoid with the utmost skill every hole and every stone. With horses, as with oxen, the long whip serves not only to regulate the pace of the animals, but to keep them all in a strait line; if any one inclines ever so little from it, a touch from the whip puts him immediately into his place again. One of our drivers gave us a singular proof of his dexterity in using his whip, for while we were in full trot he saw at a little distance from the road on a ploughed land a bird which had alighted upon the ground, when, giving the whip a flourish, he struck the bird instantly, and killed it upon the spot.'

The direction of Dr. L.'s journey would have been much better understood, had the publisher made a point of prefixing a map of the colony. The apology for the want of it (pref. p. 8.)

* M. R. Vol. xlv. p. 4.

p. 8.) is by no means satisfactory; and its absence is poorly compensated by a portrait of the author, who, in spite of the painter's skill, does not exhibit a physiognomy that is likely to excite a flame in the breast either of his fair translator or of her literary countrywomen. One of the quarters first visited by the travellers was Saldanha-bay, a spot which has twice been fatal to the military efforts of the Dutch in behalf of their colony. Mr. Barrow complained much of the supineness of the Dutch government with regard to this and other parts which were susceptible of improvement: but Professor L. (p. 40.) excuses them on the ground of the precarious nature of their tenure. 'For whom,' he asks, 'would all these charges be incurred? — For the English, who at the breaking out of every new war, are likely to be seized with their usual longing for the possession of this settlement.'

No inns being established in this country, the travelling party were accustomed to make their halts at one of the farm-houses, and to adopt the precaution of sending previous notice of their approach. The quantity of land belonging to each farmer amounts to many thousand acres: but, from the scarcity of springs, and the frequent failure of crops, the arable and even the pasture-ground fall extremely below the anticipation of an European calculator. The dwelling-houses are in general very homely: but the hospitality of the inhabitants is such as to make the traveller forget his deficient accommodation. After a tedious journey over a lofty mountain, M. de Mist and his party arrived at a retired spot called the Kom-valley:

'A thousand greetings of welcome resounded on all sides of us from the farm; and at the door of a house, not wind and water tight, we were received by two hosts, who lived here with their families in a joint *domicile*. We were conducted into the grand apartments, where the perforations in the thatch were covered over with mats as well as they could be managed to keep out the weather. A large chest served as a table, and some smaller ones as seats: our dinner was a good soup made of mutton, and a wild goat roasted; while, for a great treat, by way of dessert, our hosts set before us some white bread and milk, which had been just sent as a present to them: we found here, besides, some fresh butter, the first we had seen, which also was a present from a neighbour; — and yet, amid all this manifest poverty, every thing was perfectly clean. The women took upon themselves to do the honours of the house, and were exceedingly active in their posts: they had cheerful contented countenances, and the house swarmed with children, some of whom were even handsome. The number there seemed to be occasioned us to count them, when we found that five couple, inhabitants of the last three houses we had visited, had fifty-one living children: four out of the five mothers had each a child at the breast, and a wager might very well be laid that none of these would be the last. It is moderate in this

country to reckon upon ten children to each family, allowing for what may have been carried off by death, as it is scarcely ever to be supposed that the whole number of children born will be reared.'—

'An African farm may almost be called a State in miniature, in which the wants and means of supplying them are reciprocal, and where all are dependent one upon another. From the produce of the lands and flocks must the whole tribe be fed, so that the surplus is not so great as might be supposed at first sight; it perhaps hardly more than compensates the outgoings for objects which cannot be raised upon the spot. These may be classed under three heads: first, articles of manufacture, as cloth, linen, hats, arms: secondly, of luxury, as tea, coffee, sugar, spices, &c.: thirdly, of raw materials, as iron, pitch, and rosin. 'Tis only through the medium of these wants that a colonist is connected with the rest of the world; and I believe I may venture to assert, that excepting articles of the above description, there is scarcely any thing necessary for the supply of his household which is not drawn from his own premises. All kinds of handicraft works, such I mean as are here wanted, are performed by the slaves, for there are few indeed among them who are not instructed in some mechanical occupation, and the dwelling is surrounded with work-shops of all kinds.'—'Near these are the folds for the different sorts of cattle called here *kraals*. The kraals for the horses and oxen are enclosed by a wall five or six feet high, those for the sheep are only enclosed by thorn-hedges. As the draught cattle, the cattle destined to be slaughtered, and the cows and calves, have each separate kraals; as the sheep that bear the fine wool are separated from those with the fat tails; and as the ewes and wethers are also kept separate from each other; so there are often as many as seven or eight kraals about a house. An equal number of shepherds and herdsmen are also necessary to watch each separate flock or herd: they go out early in the morning to the place where they are to feed for the day, and all return back to the kraal at sun-set.'

The bad flavour of the water has unfortunately the effect of inducing females to accustom themselves to drink too much tea, at all hours. Beer is no where found in the colony, except at Cape Town; and milk is not an acceptable beverage to those who live chiefly on animal food.

'The consumption of corn is small: meat is the general food: the slaves in particular scarcely ever taste bread. This is universally the case where, as here, there is good feed for sheep, and meat is cheaper than bread. In a household of twenty people, three or four sheep, weighing from thirty-six to forty pounds each, are killed every day, and the common reckoning, as I collected from questioning a variety of persons, is a sheep a week for every herdsman.'—

'Chronic diseases are much more frequent in this country than acute ones. Far the greater part of the women labour under hysterical affections, which by their strange mode of managing them, contrary to all sense and reason, often come to a formidable height, and end in hectic complaints, which prove fatal. The stone is here a much

too

too common complaint among the men: this is perhaps to be ascribed in great measure to the bad water. —

'Gout and rheumatism are among the diseases to which the colonists are more particularly subject. By removing to a milder part of the country, or by the use of the warm bath, these evils are, however, more easily subdued than many others. Children suffer much from quinsies, but this is the only disease prevalent among them: scrofula is seldom to be seen, and the small-pox is quite extirpated from the interior of the colony. Fevers are not frequent, and never arrive at the formidable height among the native colonists that they do among Europeans, whether in their own countries, or as emigrants in this.'

Those of our readers, who have seen our report of the first part of Mr. Barrow's travels in this colony, may recollect the severe language in which he stigmatized the indolence of the farmers*. Professor L. takes the opposite side of the question, and maintains that Mr. Barrow, in contrasting the habits of the Cape-farmers with those of the same class of men in England, did not make sufficient allowance for the difference of climate and relative situation. 'I was led,' he says, 'almost daily, to ask myself whether these were really the same colonists whom Mr. Barrow represented as such barbarians.' — Mr. Barrow's description, however, though it is highly coloured, rests on too solid a foundation to be shaken by any panegyrist of the Dutch-colonists or their government. The poignancy of the censure, perhaps, might have been softened by admitting that several of the gross defects in the habits of the Cape-farmer were common to them with the Virginia-planter, as well as with many agriculturists in a newly settled country: but we see no cause for any direct deduction from the sum of Mr. Barrow's charges. It would be difficult, indeed, to trespass on the side of exaggeration, when describing the coarseness and selfishness of the majority of the Cape-colonists. Dr. L., it should be remembered, saw them on their fair side; since he travelled in company with a functionary of rank, for whose arrival the inhabitants were fully prepared. It is consolatory, however, to find that the gloom of this land of ignorance is somewhat cheered by a taste for music: of which the Professor and his party met with a pleasing example in one of the first houses at which they took up their abode.

'In the evening, Mr. Van Reenen entertained the company with a concert performed by his slaves. They played first a chorus, and afterwards several marches and dances upon clarionets, French horns, and bassoons. — It is not uncommon to find the same thing among many families at the Cape, and there are many freed-men in the town who gain their living by instructing the slaves in music: but

* M. R. Vol. xxxv. p. 344.

neither master nor scholars know a single note: they all play entirely by the ear.—I know many great houses in which there is not one of the slaves that cannot play upon some instrument, and where an orchestra is immediately collected, if the young people of the house, when they are visited in the afternoon by their acquaintance, like to amuse themselves with dancing for an hour or two. At a nod the cook exchanges his saucepan for a flute, the groom quits his curry-comb and takes his violin, and the gardener, throwing aside his spade, sits down to the violoncello.'

Another point of difference between Mr. Barrow and Dr. L. regards the Bosjesmans. Mr. B. condemned very severely the indifference with which Dutch farmers are accustomed to speak of shooting these wretched beings: but the present author maintains that harsh treatment of them is indispensable, and that it is almost impossible to prevail on them to relinquish their predatory habits. A few years before his journey, a collection of cattle had been made by the inhabitants of the northern districts, as a present to the neighbouring Bosjesmans, and as the commencement of a regular establishment of flocks and herds: but the experiment was unsuccessful; their neighbours to the northward, who are still more rude and unsettled, having (it was said) come down on them and consumed their little stock. The farmers find it necessary to bribe these people to abstain from stealing cattle, by presents of brandy, tobacco, sheep, &c.; yet the Bosjesmans still continue to make occasional visits at the farm-houses, in quest of a temporary maintenance. It was in the district called Roggeveld (rye-field), that Dr. Lichtenstein and his party first saw these singular creatures.

'As we were sitting at our dinner this day, we were surprised by the entrance of two Bosjesmans.—They had heard of one of the principal magistrates of the colony being in the neighbourhood, and were come in hopes of receiving some presents.'—'They were scarcely four feet high: the colour of their skin was only discernible in particular places: a thick coat of grease and dirt covered their faces and meagre limbs like a rind. Under the eyes, where the smoke of the fires by which they delight to sit had somewhat melted the grease, was a little spot quite clean, by which the proper yellow hue of the skin could be seen. A wild, shy, suspicious eye, and crafty expression of countenance, form, above all things, a striking contrast in the Bosjesman with the frank, open physiognomy of the Hottentot. The universally distinguishing features of the Hottentot, the broad, flat nose, and the large, prominent cheek-bones, are, from the leanness of the Bosjesman, doubly remarkable. Their figure, though small, is not ill-proportioned, and they would not be ugly if they had more flesh; but the withered thigh, the large knee-bone, and thin leg, are very far from handsome. Yet the men may be called handsome in comparison with the women.'—

'The clothing of our visitors consisted only of a sheep-skin worn over their shoulders as a sort of mantle, with the woolly side inwards, and

and tied round the neck with a leather thong. On their heads they had greasy leather caps, ornamented with glass beads of a great variety of colours: they had strings of the same beads round their necks, and round their wrists were broad bracelets of iron and copper. The middle part of their bodies was covered with the skin of a jackall, fastened round them with a thong of leather, and they had sandals of ox-leather bound round their feet. They had each a small leather bag hanging on their arms, in which they carried their provisions, with some tobacco, and a reed which served as a pipe. Such, with very little variation, was the costume which I found worn by these people when I visited them in their own wild state. They were then sometimes without their beads and bracelets, and wore the skin of an antelope instead of a sheep. Their woolly hair smeared over with grease and dust, and tied in a number of knots, hung down below their leather caps.'—

'It is a remarkable instance of the total absence of civilization among these people that they have no names, and seem not to feel the want of such a means of distinguishing one individual from another.'

Much dispute has arisen on the question whether the Bosjesmans were originally a distinct race, or a branch of the numerous family of Hottentots. The Professor asserts very positively (p. 116.) that they are and ever have been a separate people: but, if our limits permitted, we could adduce some substantial arguments on the opposite side. We are now, however, to pass to a very different description of men. The contrast between the Caffres and the Bosjesmans is so great as to remind us of the "contending powers of light and darkness;" the former being as conspicuous for height and elegance of stature, as their humble neighbours are for deformity. Dr. L. was not in the Caffre-country, but he found himself among individuals of that nation in his second journey through the Cape-territory, when travelling along the southern coast in the direction of Algoa-bay. In this part of the narrative, he is in much better humour with Mr. Barrow, and even expresses a sense of obligation to that gentleman for his description of these interesting tribes. 'Mr. B.'s remarks on them,' he says, 'are, in the principal points, perfectly accurate: they are put together with a particular spirit of observation, and seem to have been collected with much industry.'

'It was in the valley of the Kromme-river (crooked river) that we first saw some Caffres, who had come on a party of pleasure; or, as they termed it, had taken a walk to be entertained by the colonists, and receive presents from them. What makes the neighbourhood of these savages extremely irksome is, that in peace they expect as a sort of tribute what in war they seize by force. They often come in large bodies, and will stay several days or even weeks, scarcely thinking themselves obliged, even though they are entertained all the time without

out cost; and this the inhabitants do, to obviate, if possible, any cause of quarrel with them. Many times, in making peace, endeavours have been made to establish a fixed boundary which neither side shall pass without express permission from the chiefs of the country, but to this they never would consent, urging that there was no use in being at peace, if people could not make visits to their friends to enquire after their welfare. Under this pretence, they rove in little troops all over the colony, coming sometimes even to the Cape Town, to the no little injury of the colonists over whose properties they travel.—As they have no idea themselves, but of living from day to day, without any regard to the future, they consider the breeding cattle kept by the colonists as wholly superfluous, which ought to be, and shall be shared with them.'—

'They gave us, unasked for, a pantomimic representation of their mode of fighting, ranging themselves in two rows, and showing how, by the most rapid and powerful movements of the body, they throw the weapon at the enemy. They also imitated their manner of avoiding the weapons of the opponent, which consisted in changing their place at every moment, springing hither and thither with loud cries, throwing themselves at one instant on the ground, and then rising with astonishing velocity to take their aim anew. The activity and readiness of their motions, the variety and rapid changes of attitude in these fine, athletic, naked warriors, made this sight as pleasing as it was interesting, on account of its novelty.'—

'The universal characteristics of all the tribes of this great nation consist in an external form and figure, varying exceedingly from the other nations of Africa. They are much taller, stronger, and their limbs much better proportioned. Their colour is brown—their hair black and woolly. Their countenances have a character peculiar to themselves, and which do not permit their being included in any other of the African races of mankind. They have the high forehead and prominent nose of the Europeans, the thick lips of the Negroes, and the high cheek-bones of the Hottentots. Their beards are black, and much fuller than those of the Hottentots.'—

'They live chiefly upon flesh, and grow very little corn: a sort of millet, the *Holcus Caffrorum*, is their only sort. Milk is a principal article of food with them. They are a sort of semi-nomades: they do not change their dwelling-places frequently, and when they are changed, it is unwillingly; but they settle themselves easily in a new place. They differ among each other in the degree of cultivation at which they are arrived; those most advanced in civilization are distinguished by their huts being stronger built, and by their less frequent change of place. There are fewer men than women, on account of the numbers of the former that fall in their frequent wars. Thence comes polygamy, and the women being principally employed in all menial occupations. Their clothing is skins tanned with some skill. Their arms are the hassagai, the kirri, and a shield. Poisoning their weapons is abhorred by them all.—They believe in magic, and in prognostics: they consecrate cattle; and the youths are circumcised when they are from twelve to fourteen years old. They have no kinds of alphabetical characters; but appear to have some ideas of drawing.

Metals

Metals are worked and engraved by them. The Caffre is warlike and barbarous towards his enemies; disposed to be true to his friends, but distrustful even towards his own countrymen. In peace addicted to indolence; frugal and temperate, loving cleanliness and ornament, and respecting wedded faith. They have, in general, good natural understandings; but the most sensible are, notwithstanding, addicted to the grossest superstition.—Their internal wars, not only of one tribe against another, but of rebellious captains against their princes, disturb their quiet continually, and prevent their making much progress in civilization.—

'These may be called the characteristic features of the nation at large. While in them will be recognised a more than half-uncivilised race, the Caffres must be acknowledged a very distinct people from their next neighbours the Hottentots, inhabiting the inhospitable south-west corner of the great peninsula of Africa; the latter are much lower in stature, poor in understanding and in speech, without government or laws — without any distinction of property: such a race are as distinct from the Caffres, as a Mussulman from a Briton. This difference would be wholly inexplicable, upon the supposition that these nations had, from the remotest times, lived in the neighbourhood of each other; and it is more than probable that both came originally from a very great distance.'

To these remarks, the author adds (p. 251. *et seq.*) a number of others, derived partly from his own observation, and more, if the truth may be spoken, from that of his predecessors. He is here greatly indebted to the journal of Governor Janssens, as well as to the reports of the missionaries.

We turn from the contemplation of the manners of savages to the more cheering topic of the practicability of ameliorating their condition. The Moravians, who have been instrumental in diffusing peaceful and industrious habits throughout so many districts in Europe, have extended their useful labours to the neighbourhood of the Cape. About twenty years ago, three missionaries settled in a retired valley at a place called Bavians-kloof; and being joined, some time afterward, by two other brethren, they have made many converts among the Hottentots, and among the mixed offspring of Europeans and natives. The latter, though hitherto miserably neglected in point of education, discover less reluctance to habits of industry than the Hottentots; who are, in general, such inveterate sluggards, as to avoid all labour until compelled to it by downright necessity. Many of them even suffer a certain degree of hunger, and remain contented with the miserable covering of a skin round the body, rather than work for a better supply of food and clothing. Yet their exemption from habits of actual mischief renders them objects of commiseration rather than of anger, and the Moravians have accordingly been induced to bestow much patience in instructing them.

'The

'The Brethren have built a very neat church, from remittances sent them by the society in Europe, and the number of their disciples now amounts to nearly eleven hundred. Two hundred houses and huts, with gardens annexed to them, and built in regular rows, give this place the appearance of an European village; a sight which surprised me exceedingly, and for the first time brought in a lively manner to my mind the idea of my native country. Excepting this place, I never saw any thing in the whole colony bearing the least resemblance to a German village. The five Brethren, with their wives, received us at the door of a house where they live all together. One of them made a short speech to welcome us, after which a chorus of perhaps a hundred Hottentots, men and women, ranged in two rows before the door, the women on the right hand, the men on the left, sung a hymn, which was truly affecting and elevating to the heart.'—

'To form a just estimate of the worth of these excellent men, their manner of conducting themselves towards the Hottentots must be seen; the mildness, yet dignity with which they instruct them, and the effect which has already been produced in improving the condition of their uncivilized brethren, are truly admirable. It is the more astonishing, since all has been accomplished by persuasion and exhortation, no violence, or even harshness, has ever been employed. No other punishment is known but being prohibited from attending divine service, or being banished the society; but it is very rarely that they are obliged to have recourse to these things, only when repeated exhortations and remonstrances have failed, and a determined perverseness of disposition appears, which cannot otherwise be subdued. The highest reward of industry, and good behaviour, is to be baptised and received into the society. Of this, however, they are so sparing, that the whole number of the baptised scarcely yet amounts to fifty. To the most distinguished among these, the still higher honours are granted of being appointed to little offices in the church, such as elders and deacons.'—

'How much superior is such an institution to those that have been established in other parts of Southern Africa, by English and Dutch missionaries. While the Herrenhuters, wherever they have gone, have excited universal respect, and have endeavoured to inspire a spirit of industry, with a sense of true religion, while they have sought to make the savages men before they thought of making them Christians, the missionaries above mentioned, with few exceptions, have shewn themselves idle vagabonds, or senseless fanatics, beginning their task of conversion by teaching the doctrine of the Trinity, and baptising their disciples, and have concerned themselves little with seeking to give them habits of industry, to inspire them with the feelings of men: they have commenced with the superstructure, without thinking of laying the proper foundation by which it was to be supported.'

The meritorious individuals above mentioned were not the only countrymen of Dr. L., whom he met in his Cape-excursions. From vicinity of situation and similarity of language, Holland is one of the principal outlets of the emigrating population of Germany; and, as many of these settlers have been «*d'une morale*

morale plus que douteuse," and have led a life of adventure, a curious volume might be composed from their respective narratives, by a traveller who had leisure and discrimination. The richness of southern Africa in botanical treasures is one of the points in which the Professor does not differ from Mr. Barrow. "The vegetable productions of the Cape-district," says Mr. B., (M. R. Vol. xxxv. p. 340.) "are more numerous, varied, and elegant, than on any other spot of equal extent in the whole world." — 'A man,' says Dr. L., (p. 32.) 'can hardly explore this country without almost involuntarily becoming a naturalist: my turn for collecting such objects was caught by many of our party.' The warmth of the climate, however, gives a premature growth to plants from the north of Europe. A winter's day at the Cape is not colder than an ordinary day of spring in our climate; and, in a month or six weeks after the trees have lost their leaves, the buds and blossoms are again seen to form and expand. The consequence is that many trees, such as the elm, the beech, and the lime, do not succeed; and others, as the oak and chesnut, while they apparently thrive, are of very inferior solidity to the kindred trees in a proper soil.—The productions of the animal kingdom are equally novel to an European traveller. In the course of his eastward peregrination, the author had, or believed that he had, sight of a troop of elephants in the inland-forests: but night and bad weather were approaching, and the party forbore to attempt any chace of these animals.

The fascinating power of the snake, over the small animals which have the misfortune to fall within its reach, has been often mentioned; and recently (M. R. Vol. lix. p. 255.) in our report of an account of Jamaica. As Dr. L., however, was an eye-witness of a case of this kind, we communicate it to our readers in his own words:

'As, according to my custom, I took a ramble into the fields in the afternoon, I saw at the brink of a ditch a large snake in pursuit of a field-mouse. The poor animal was just at its hole, when it seemed in a moment to stop, as if unable to proceed, and, without being touched by the snake, to be palsied with terror. The snake had raised its head over him, opened its mouth, and seemed to fix its eyes stedfastly upon him. Both remained still a while, but as soon as the mouse made a motion, as if he would fly, the head of the snake followed the movement immediately, as if he would stop his way. This sport lasted four or five minutes, till my approach put an end to it: the snake then snapped up his prey hastily, and glided away with it into a neighbouring bush, where I endeavoured in vain to get at him and kill him. As I had heard a great deal of this magic power in the snake over smaller animals, it was very interesting to me to see a specimen of it. I think it may be made a question, however, whether the poisonous breath of the reptile might not really have

have had the effect of paralysing the limbs of the mouse, rather than its inability to move proceeded either from the fixed eye of the snake, or the apprehension of inevitable death. It is remarkable, and very certain, that serpents will sport with their prey, as cats do, before they kill it.'

The Hippopotamos is found in one of the rivers of the Cape-district, called the Berg-river, and passes among the natives by the familiar name of sea-cow. During the day, these animals seldom appear above water, but at night they land and traverse the fields, eating the young corn, and trampling it down with their unwieldy feet. The stamp of the foot on the ground is as large as a common trencher; and, in muddy spots, where the creature sinks deeper, a furrow is discerned between the marks of the feet, which is made by his large protuberant belly.—Among the insects new to a foreign traveller, Professor L. was struck with the immense number of white ants that were strewn over the fields in particular soils of the Cape-district. Their heaps resemble bee-hives, and are laid open with a pike; after which the animals come out in multitudes, and are very coolly gathered up by the hand and put into bags by the country people, as food for their poultry. The hive, full of little cells, looks like a coarse sponge; and, when placed between two layers of wood, is found to make an excellent fire. These ants, however, are less mischievous in southern Africa than in the hotter climate of Java, where they are known to get into houses and destroy provisions and clothing. Their predatory activity in Java has even been alleged as a cloak for delinquencies originating in a very different source, one of the public warehousemen having actually laid to their charge the disappearance of a quantity of *bells and iron bars.*

We conclude our extracts relative to the animal kingdom in the Cape-district, by the following description of a flock of Ostriches:

'The uniformity of our route was agreeably interrupted by several flocks of Ostriches which appeared on both sides of us, and which we came tolerably near before they perceived us. They then fled in haste, crowding close together, and running against the wind: an eye unaccustomed to such a sight might easily mistake them at a little distance for a squadron of horsemen. To the right we remarked some single ones which had strayed too far from the main body, and were now easily cut off from joining them by our horsemen.—We resolved on taking a method of getting as near a sight as possible of one of these cavalier-like figures, and encircled him with our horses, drawing so close to him on all sides, that no way remained for him to escape, but by running directly through the midst of us. Two of our dragoons endeavoured to stop his way, presenting themselves directly before him, and even ventured to strike at him with their

their drawn sabres. By this manœuvre we got a complete sight of his gigantic figure, for, raising his head as high as he could stretch it above the rider, he pushed forward, and, evading the stroke of the sabre, ran away. This rashness was much condemned by the Africans, as they assured us, that if the bird in its flight had given them a flap with its powerful wing, and this might easily have happened, an arm or thigh would probably have been broken. The number of ostriches we saw in this place could scarcely be less than three hundred. I never on any other occasion saw so many together.'

In these quotations, we have been desirous of selecting the most entertaining passages; and we regret that the dulness of other parts of the book obliges us to exhibit them in the light of exceptions to its general character. Dr. L.'s travels through the Cape-territory are divided into three distinct parts; first, the journey with M. de Mist, in a north-west direction from Cape Town, passing by Saldanha-bay; secondly, the journey eastward, along the southern coast as far as Algoa-bay; and, thirdly, a continuation of the same route, inclining towards the north-east, and extending to the remote settlement of Graaff Reynett. He makes (pref. p. 7.) large promises of the store which he will give to the public in the remainder of the work: he engages to furnish a list of *all* the books hitherto published on southern Africa, with strictures on their respective merits; and this is to be followed by what he styles the 'important but invidious task' of correcting the multiplied errors of his predecessors. No wonder that a writer of such confident anticipations should be 'inspired' with the project of expanding his work to a gigantic bulk: but we cannot help feeling both surprize and regret that Miss Plumptre did not take on herself the task of reducing and adapting his diffuse composition to the taste of the English public. "Long must have been her toil in the work of translation;" and the abridging liberty which we have mentioned would, in such a case, have been perfectly allowable. No farther preliminary would have been required than a brief notice of the passages that were subjected to curtailment; and these, in course, would have comprehended the endless minutiæ of the author's details in all instances in which they partook of repetition, or were unprofitable for the illustration of some general truth. Instead of pursuing such a plan, Miss P. seems to have obsequiously followed the author not only in his tedious recapitulations, but in a literal insertion of every qualifying clause with which a German writer is accustomed to clog his sentences. She has occasionally subjoined an useful annotation: but this serves little other purpose than to tantalize the reader with a view of the improvement which the book might have received at her hands. Such, indeed, seems to be her veneration for the

Professor,

Professor, that she has permitted herself not unfrequently to copy his foreign idioms into English. The Dutch commissary is styled a 'regent,' as if that word were significative in our language, as in theirs, of a mere magistrate. In p. 60., we are told of a 'month and a half;' and we are presented in the same paragraph with the new coined word, 'useable.' This, however, is trifling in comparison with the happy phrase 'to inspire a spirit,' with which we are presented in p. 57., and from which some readers may suspect that the author of the "Rejected Addresses" borrowed his memorable line,

"His fireman's soul was all on fire."

Should Miss P. again condescend to introduce Dr. L.'s labours to the British public, we hope that her modesty will not prevent her from lopping off his manifold exuberances, and rendering him better adapted to the fastidious taste of the British public: while her own style, we hope, will receive correction and polish.

A few engravings illustrate the volume.

ART. II. *Madame de* Staël *on Germany.*

[*Article continued from p.* 68.]

OF that part of Mad. de Staël's production which may be considered as the description of her tour, and which gives so sprightly, so intelligent, and so characteristic an estimate of the German country and people, we have already spoken on two occasions; in December last (p. 421.), and in January (p. 63.) The public eagerness of perusal and glow of satisfaction are scarcely commensurate, we are told, with the decided and concurring admiration of the literary critics. Perhaps the English are so accustomed to caustic reviewing, that they mistake the absence of censure for the simulation of flattery, and suspect a bookseller's puff when an author is not broken on the wheel.

We have now to consider the second part of the work, which treats of literature and the arts; and, as these are topics of less pressing though more lasting interest, we have quietly awaited leisure to weigh and convenience to insert our commentary on them. The marking feature of German literature is its *comprehensiveness;* and out of this, as a cause, arise all its peculiarities. The entire library of the world circulates in the vernacular language of Germany. It contains, as in a mediterranean sea, the tributary waters of every literary region, the streams of classical antiquity and of modern refinement. This comparison, however, is depreciating to the prototype, which rather resembles the endless ocean; the Euphrates floats thither

its Hebrew remains, and the Ganges its Hindoo reliques: there the Baltic casts its hyperborean amber; and there the Thames and the Delaware empty not only their waters, but their bubbles and their mud.

Were we to enumerate and examine severally the various departments of human inquiry, the profusion of German attention bestowed on each would astonish our readers. What other nation has explored with equal industry the *Hebrew* classics, the Jewish records? The thousand and one translations, introductions, commentaries, dissertations, lectures, repertories, lexicons, and other expositions, *recensions*, and paraphrases of the sacred writings, which have been printed in Germany, form a vaster library than the collective literature of all other Christian nations in that palmary branch of study.

In our own country, Scripture-criticism is less cultivated as a liberal art, than as a common necessary; less for the discovery of truth, than for the diffusion of utility. Like a Birmingham glass-press, it is employed to stamp faces for seals, not lenses for philosophy. We await the decease of a Michaelis, or a Griesbach, to declare our admiration of their greatness in learning, and of their impartiality in judgment; as if we wished always to deserve the reproof of our satirist,

> "That nations slowly wise and meanly just
> To buried merit raise the tardy bust."

For the not inferior but living names of Eichhorn and Paulus, our libraries have not a vacancy, nor our translators a vacation, nor our critics a telescope.

Of the *Greek* classics, no other country than Germany has given so many well-edited editions; no other language has provided so many learnedly close yet happy versions. In translation, the German idea is to sacrifice every other consideration to fidelity; and their poetic artists *take off* an antient, as their Holbeins execute a portrait, with the minutest truth of detail. They choose to have the blemishes as well as the beauties distinctly given; so that the critic can moot all his speculative remarks with the vernacular as with the original text. Other nations attach, as we do, their ideas of the beautiful to certain agreed forms of representation; and they endeavour, in translating the antients, to recast them in moulds habitually pleasing at home. So Pope gives a Homer after the manner of the best English versifiers; and Delille supplies a Virgil and a Milton after the manner of the best French versifiers. That, however, which appears to us to ennoble and embellish, often seems to a German to degrade and deform; we have substituted, he thinks, a stiff theatric strut for the

Grecian's easy firm walk, and have exchanged the flowing native costume for a "new-fangled" embroidery stiffened with buckram. The German Homer of Stolberg, or of Voss, has nothing of the modern cut and manner in its garb: the lines are hexameters, as in the original; and the words are studiously verbal. If Schiller translates Æschylus, or Stolberg renders Sophocles, he conceives that Greek art would be burlesqued by putting the choruses into rhime. This method of *fac-simile* interpretation has given plasticity not only to the language but to the public taste. The master-pieces of each nation are enjoyed in Germany on their own principles; not compared with, or reduced to, any standard of domestic prejudice. Nationality constitutes to an informed mind a part of the value of any production of literature; it is one of the phænomena, for the opportunity of observing which a foreign work of art is read. Indeed, the German theories of criticism have been so much liberalized by the variety of imported models, that their lawgivers in taste are rather the apologists of anarchy than the enforcers of rule. This latitudinarianism of susceptibility renders Greek literature peculiarly pleasing to the Germans; it has far less of restraint, of system, and of reticency, than Roman literature: it paints from nature, and from naked nature; not from men in togas making set speeches, learnt by heart. —Some one of the Academy della Crusca was blaming the Italian translator of Aristophanes for employing obscene words: —"Let us hear," said Pope Leo in reply, "what blackguards the Greeks were; this will teach us the value of religion and refinement." The Germans have a little of Pope Leo's indulgence for those translators, who honestly betray the want of good breeding or of purity of conversation among the Greeks. Indeed, in translating an antient, to unite sincerity with decorum is not always easy: the Lucian of Wieland is in this respect, as in every other, an admirable model; he knows how to render transparent the curtain which may not be undrawn; and, without suppressing any information, to avoid offending by giving it: he is considered among the Germans as having produced the best of their prose-translations from the Greek.

In editing the *Latin* classics, the Germans have also great merit: but not so much in translating them. At least, with the single exception of Horace, several of whose odes have been as happily Germanized by Ramler as his epistles have been by Wieland, we do not recollect any one eminent Latin writer, the German translation of whom deserves to be cited as a model. Indeed, the German language is ill adapted for that oratorical manner, which Cicero taught to all the subsequent Latin writers, and even to the modern revivers of literature.

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It has not much rival excellence to oppose to the Spanish Sallust, or the Italian Tacitus, or the English Letters of Melmoth.

The translations of *modern* literature, again, are more distinguished for multiplicity than elegance. Not only the classical but the secondary books are sedulously interpreted, and with a scrupulous fidelity. In fact, so complete is the division of literary labour among the Germans, that every science has its separate journal, which seldom fails to import most of the foreign pamphlets and articles of magazines that belong to the department undertaken. Of all the perversities of a translator, to extirpate raciness is with them the most unpardonable: they agree with Roscommon;

> "Your author *always* will the best advise:
> Fall when he falls, and when he rises, rise."

From a Mickle's Lusiad they would turn to the prose interpretation in the Portuguese grammar; and, to escape embellishment, they would slight beauty. What can we learn, they would ask, concerning foreign taste, foreign prejudice, or foreign art, unless we see the books of distant countries exactly in their native form?—and for what other purpose is foreign literature to be studied?

The German version of Shakspeare deserves singular distinction. It was executed by the joint labours of a comic prose-writer and a tragic poet: the rhime is given in rhime, the blank verse in blank verse, and the prose in prose; and each with an admirable precision, which unwillingly conceals a quibble or a vulgarism. With similar imitation, Weisse has rendered his French tragedies in rhimed alexandrines. Schlegel is equally shy of adulteration in his Spanish and Portuguese importations.

Mad. de Staël begins (chap. i.) by inquiring why the French do not render justice to German literature? The reason is that the French have hitherto been an untravelled nation, bigoted to domestic forms of art and points of view, and rarely acquainted with any modern language but their own. Until the dispersion of Frenchmen which was occasioned by the Revolution, they were a narrow-minded people, and had not acquired that power of voluntary transmigration which, in taste as in morals, is the basis of every equitable estimate. They could not imagine themselves in the circumstances of others, so as to see with the same tinge of retina. It requires a comprehensive knowlege of any age, or any nation, to enter thoroughly into its range of idea. The circulating productions of the Parisians did not suffice to create this familiarity with the

stranger: they were a set of people less formed by books than by conversation and the theatre, and less addicted than the Gothic nations to the perusal of voyages and travels, which always break in on the local superstitions. 'Extent of knowlege,' as Mad. de Staël remarks, 'brings under the eye so many different ways of seeing, that it bestows on the mind a tolerance which is the result of universality.'

The fair author next proceeds (chap. ii.) to inquire respecting the opinions formed in England on German literature. It is well observed that here the useful and the honourable weigh much in public opinion; and that the English affect deafness to genius and indifference to beauty, when dangerous theory or seductive imagery is advanced.

Chapter iii. professes to treat of the principal epochas of German literature, but without displaying much historical or antiquarian research. From her friend Schlegel, in his preface to the extracts from Lessing, Mad. de Staël might have learnt that the beginning of the thirteenth century was a period of blossom for German poetry; and that the Swabian poets especially have left important remains, consisting mostly of metrical romances concerning the heroes of chivalry. Since the attempt of Manessen in 1758 to edit these old poets, at Zurich, other manuscripts have been discovered and published, such as *Iwain* and the *Niebelungen*. This Swabian poetry was founded on the imitation of the Provençal Troubadours and of the French minstrels.

A second attempt at a literary age took place in Germany under Maximilian, and Charles V.: but this also proved abortive. The quarrels of the Reformation withdrew attention from poetry; and of this period little is now repeated except the hymns of Luther, and the involved fable of Renard the fox.

The true and memorable Augustan age of Germany was fated to be coëval with the sun-set of Frederic II., and will probably be named after him; as it has principally consisted in the reflection of his illumination; in the attempt of art to rival those French and Italian models which he preferred; and in the attempt of learning to substitute a philosophical church for the antient protestantism of the German north. The drama manifests fewer traces of the influence of the mind of Frederic, than the book-literature of Germany.

Mad. de Staël justly observes that, about the middle of the last century, the German authors were divided into two schools, the English and the French. Bodmer, Haller, Sulzer, and the Swiss critics, favoured the English school; Hagedorn, Gellert, Weisse, and the Leipzig critics, patronized the French school. These critical disputations shook the narrower prejudices of

each party, and encouraged a generous disdain of frivolous rules: to Klopstock was awarded the highest rank among the poets of the English school; and to Wieland among those of the French.

Chapter iv. is allotted to the especial criticism of Wieland. In our xviiith Volume, N. S. p. 522., we began, and at intervals (Vols. xix. 481.; xxi. 490.; xxii. 506.; xxiii. 575.; xxvi. 481.) continued a detailed analysis of this laborious writer's works; whom, in our judgment, Mad. de Staël much undervalues. His early trash we cannot burn, but need not read. A profound knowlege of Greek literature and archæology gives to his riper productions, (and they constitute the mass,) to his Agathon, to his Abderites, to his Peregrinus, to his Agathodæmon, and to his Aristippus, not merely the value of entertaining novels, but that of instructive historiography. The philosophic sects, the social opinions, the artistical enthusiasm, and the graceful indulgences of the Greeks, are here far better painted than in the Anacharsis of Barthélémy. If Wieland inclines to a refined epicurism, his writings might delight and satisfy the critical fastidiousness of a Hume. His poetry still surpasses his prose, which is somewhat trailing. The finest modern poem, that has been produced since Tasso's *Jerusalem Delivered*, is certainly Wieland's Oberon; and his *Fabliaux*, and his Musarion, are worthy of the author of that masterpiece. It must be owned, however, that he frequently oversteps the limits of delicacy in his writings; and hence, no doubt, the decorous indifference of this fair author to his pages.

The fifth chapter relates to Klopstock, and observes that he was formed by the perusal of English writers, especially Milton and Young. Ossian's manner may also be traced in the German *Messiah*. If Dr. Johnson complained that Milton was tedious, we may bring this accusation more strongly against Klopstock. A pious taste is not often associated with a disposition to yawn, but is indeed usually cultivated as a defence against tedium, and is humbly contented with a mediocrity of interest; yet piety itself must stretch and writhe under the load of tautologous inanities which are repeated throughout Klopstock's *Messiah*, in endless litany, by souls of the living and of the dead, by saints, seraphs, cherubs, and angels. Like the singing-master of a Methodist-meeting, instead of giving us the effect of praise in unison, Klopstock calls out one by one his intended choir, and compels the stunned and reluctant hearer to remark the proficiency of each, in countless individual succession. A French critic (Chateaubriand, in the anonymous work which he published in this country; see our xxiid Vol. p. 540.) compares the *Messiah* with the *Mahabharat*,

barat, and advises that it should be conveyed to the Bramins, to give them an idea of European religion.

Mad. de Staël indicates, as the most pathetic scene in the *Messiah*, the death-bed of Mary, the sister of Lazarus; whom Klopstock, for want of critically studying the Scripture, has erroneously made into a different person from Mary Magdalene. This passage has been set to music, and was performed at the funeral of Klopstock. It depicts with lingering fidelity the dying Christian.—We shall transcribe the passage in question, from the popular prose-translation which circulates in this country, and was executed, we believe, by Mrs. Collyer. It will alike display the manner of the poet and the taste of his critic:

"Meanwhile, Mary the sister of Lazarus lay at the point of death. Cold sweats, and the conflict of her heart, denounced her approaching dissolution. She already tasted the leaden slumber, the harbinger of *everlasting* * sleep in the bosom of silent corruption. From this lethargic insensibility she raised her head, and with mournful countenance sought Martha's sympathizing † eyes, which, exhausted by continual grief, shed no tears. She than began the following discourse, in which Martha answered and she replied. I can no longer, my dear sister, continue silent. All now forsake me, even Lazarus and Nathanael. And see, I die: ah! I lived with them, but without them shall die.

"Accuse not the faithful. Perhaps the divine teacher has led them into the wilderness, that they may learn by experience how he feeds the hungry and refreshes the weary soul.

"Did I accuse them, Martha? those whom I love never have I accused. If I have, O my dearest friends, forgive me—forgive all my offences, those I recollect and those I have forgotten. Alas! what now rises in my soul covers it with sadness.

"Shake off the sollicitude with which thou art oppressed. Does that gloom, which sometimes clouded the felicity of thy life, return in death?

"O call not the divine disposition, gloom. I conjure thee by him who judgeth us, and is now gathering me to my fathers, call not his dispensation, gloom. If I have suffered, have I not also had much joy, and friends like thee? Have I not, in my pilgrimage to the grave, seen Jesus, the delight of angels?—seen his miracles, and heard his wisdom? O let me be thankful for all my afflictions, for all the supports, all the reviving cordials I have received! And above all I give thee thanks, O thou all-gracious disposer of my life, that I have seen Jesus, the friend of man, the awakener of the dead. Leave me, Martha, go and make ready my sepulchre. Where Lazarus slept, there will I sleep.

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* The word 'everlasting' is here omitted by the translator, but occurs in the original.

† Klopstock's epithet is "full of weary pain."

"Sleep, O Mary, where Lazarus slept, and arise at the voice of him, who raises the dead.

"Happy Martha, what sweet dreams of hope flow into my soul. Withdraw, that I may be alone with God. I sat at the feet of the holy one, and he taught me, saying, One thing is needful. Now it is needful that I be alone with God.

"How shall I leave thee in thy last moments, I cannot leave thee. Compose thyself, dear sister, thou art alone with God: and may the God of Abraham, and Isaac, and Jacob be with thee!

"Stay then. May he be with me, who fills all the heavens, and whose almighty voice calls the children of Adam to return to life! With me be Jesus, and the God of Abraham, of Isaac, and of Jacob.

"Having thus spoken, she from her inmost soul thus supplicated the forgiver of sins. Hear, O hear me, and enter not into judgement with a poor sinner. What mortal can stand before thee? O God, give rest to my dying heart, and rejoice my soul with the assurance of thy salvation! Thou, Lord of death, cast me not off from thy presence! Give me again, O Father, thy consolations; and restore to me the joys of thy spirit, thou who heardest Job amid the most piercing afflictions!

"Thus she prayed; then, turning to Martha, she said: Dost thou think, my dear sister, that Jesus now prays for me? Thou knowest that he shed tears on coming to the grave of Lazarus, will he not also pity me? Can we otherwise than through him come to him who sent him? Hope dawns on my soul to receive grace through him, when the dark thought comes across me, that he is accursed who fulfilleth not all the commandments.

"O that Nathanael and Lazarus were here! they would tell thee, this one thing is certain, that Jesus prays for thee.

"Mary now sunk into a deep slumber; on which Martha rose and stood by the bed, to view her sleeping sister; scarcely breathing, for fear she should waken her, who was now entering into the gloomy vale, and about to leave her alone. Sadness overflowed her heart, and tears ran down her pale cheek, but she repressed loud sobs, and by degrees her quicker breathing. Thus silent she stood in the gloomy chamber, enlightened only by a faint lamp, now taught not to go out until the morning.

"Cheered feels the pilgrim, who considers the idea of death with joy, after passing through a parched and silent wilderness, when he comes at a cool rock, finds a cave in the rock, and in the cave a tomb covered with the recumbent statue of the dead *: beside which sits, himself a statue, the mourning friend of the deceased. — Dim is the light which enters the cave, and the mourner heeds only his loss. — So, Mary, did thine angel, with calm welcome, approach thy bed, and find Martha with thee.

"While Chebar stood at the feet of Mary, he found his resplendent beauty fade; from his face fled the rosy blush of the

* We are here obliged to depart from the translation, which widely misrepresents the original.

morning, and the radiant lustre of his eyes: his wings flagged; no fragrant exhalations, no harmony, accompanied their languid motion; no longer they glowed with celestial azure bedropped with gold. From his head he took his radiant crown, and held it in a drooping hand."

The angel of death, the heavenly messenger, is, however, obliged to wait another hour: for Lazarus and Nathanael come in; and all the death-bed sollicitudes are to be rehearsed, with increased emphasis, in the presence of these holy men. We exhort our readers to continue by themselves the edifying narration, which fills a large portion of the twelfth book of the *Messiah:* but we are so tired with copying what has been already given of this lasting though touching scene, that even our deference for Mad. de Staël's admiration cannot drag us to continue the transcript to its conclusion.

Chapter vi. treats of Lessing and Winkelmann, writers of an opposite character. This order of names ought to have been reversed; because the great impression made on the German mind by Winkelmann's *History of the Arts of Antiquity* preceded the reputation of Lessing.

Winkelmann was a warm enthusiast, who visited Italy, fell in love with its sculptured reliques of antient art, and undertook to describe them panegyrically. The affectionate, glowing, eloquent character of his diction could not but communicate something of his own beautiful idolatry: while the ample pedantry of his references gave much appearance of solidity to his antiquarian theories. Thus Winkelmann became for a time a *Cicerone* to the scholars, and a classical tutor to the connaisseurs, of Europe. By degrees, however, it has been discovered that he quoted at second hand; that his inferences are drawn with great rashness; and that his intemperate and somewhat whimsical admiration, if intended for the mask, is in fact the mark, of a hesitating and indefinite opinion. Ignorant of the date of many of the statues, ignorant that the Apollo is composed of Carrara marble, he falsely ascribes to freedom and to the Greeks an exclusive power of statuary. He has promoted among the German princes an eager patronage of art, but is rather the orator than the philosopher of connaisseurship.

Lessing, on the contrary, was incapable of enthusiasm, even when he had a scene of love or of death to dramatize. He inquires of his good sense whether such a sentiment be proper, instead of trusting to a headlong sympathy for its being probable. He was, however, a sound scholar, and had a clear head and an unprejudiced judgment. Whether, in his Laocoon, he wanders into the field of Winkelmann, or, in his Dramaturgy, into the field of Aristotle, he displays that thinking force which intitles

entitles a man to dissent from authority; and that knowlege of authorities, which reduces to respectful quiet all but the most inventive minds. His style is pure, simple, and precise; it employs few ornaments, but these are pearls of value. He was a powerful dialectician, adding to the extant stock of human arguments, on whatever subject he reasoned; and he was a fair critic on the arguments of others. Indeed, criticism was his passion, and his forte. His plays seem to be undertaken only to realize his rules. His very theology is itself but criticism; he disserts, indeed, on the origin of the first three gospels, and on the aim or purpose of Christ: but it is not as a fortune-teller to the souls of men that he undertakes the inquiry. With the same penetration, with the same intrepid pursuit of truth, and with the same indifference as to the result, he would have investigated what is enigmatical in the life of Homer, or of Apollonius of Tyana. Lessing was not the orator but the philosopher of criticism.

Winkelmann once asserted a majestic reputation in European literature: but, though his books are still valued for their decorations, they are no longer regarded as authoritative. Lessing once passed for a disappointed play-wright, and a mere jobbing periodical critic:—his fragments are now disinterred from his correspondence; and his theological conjectures are treated with deference by an Eichhorn and a Herbert Marsh. Suffice it for Lessing's praise, that this does not result from the caprice of mankind, but from the necessary and eventual ascendancy of intellect.

Mad. de Staël's seventh chapter, concerning Goëthe, is excellent: it displays the observation which knows how to paint and how to judge; and it forms in our opinion the most consummate piece of portraiture that she has executed. The works of Goëthe are analyzed afterward.—We quote this chapter from the *translation* of Mad. de S.'s work.

'That which was wanting to Klopstock was a creative imagination: he gave utterance to great thoughts and noble sentiments in beautiful verse; but he was not what might be called an artist. His inventions are weak; and the colours in which he invests them have scarcely even that plenitude of strength that we delight to meet with in poetry, and in all other arts which are expected to give to fiction the energy and originality of nature. Klopstock loses himself in the ideal: Goëthe never gives up the earth; even in attaining the most sublime conceptions, his mind possesses vigour not weakened by sensibility. Goëthe might be mentioned, as the representative of all German literature; not that there are no writers superior to him in different kinds of composition, but that he unites in himself alone all that distinguishes German genius; and no one besides is so remarkable for a peculiar species of imagination which neither Italians, English, or French have ever attained.

'Goëthe

'Goëthe having displayed his talents in composition of various kinds, the examination of his works will fill the greatest part of the following chapters; but a personal knowledge of the man who possesses such an influence over the literature of his country will, it appears to me, assist us the better to understand that literature.

'Goëthe possesses superior talents for conversation; and whatever we may say, superior talents ought to enable a man to talk. We may, however, produce some examples of silent men of genius: timidity, misfortune, disdain, or ennui, are often the cause of it; but, in general, extent of ideas and warmth of soul naturally inspire the necessity of communicating our feelings to others; and those men who will not be judged by what they say, may not deserve that we should interest ourselves in what they think. When Goëthe is induced to talk, he is admirable: his eloquence is enriched with thought; his pleasantry is, at the same time, full of grace and of philosophy; his imagination is impressed by external objects, as was that of the ancient artists; nevertheless his reason possesses but too much the maturity of our own times. Nothing disturbs the strength of his mind; and even the defects of his character, ill humour, embarrassment, constraint, pass like clouds round the foot of that mountain on the summit of which his genius is placed.

'What is related of the conversation of Diderot may give some idea of that of Goëthe; but, if we may judge by the writings of Diderot, the distance between these two men must be infinite. Diderot is the slave of his genius; Goëthe ever holds the powers of his mind in subjection: Diderot is affected, from the constant endeavour to produce effect: but in Goëthe we perceive disdain of success, and that to a degree that is singularly pleasing, even when we have most reason to find fault with his negligence. Diderot finds it necessary to supply by philanthropy his want of religious sentiments: Goëthe is inclined to be more bitter than sweet; but, above all, he is natural; and in fact, without this quality, what is there in one man that should have power to interest another?

'Goëthe possesses no longer that resistless ardour which inspired him in the composition of Werter; but the warmth of his imagination is still sufficient to animate every thing. It might be said, that he is himself unconnected with life, and that he describes it merely as a painter. He attaches more value, at present, to the pictures he presents to us, than to the emotions he experiences; time has rendered him a spectator. While he still bore a part in the active scenes of the passions, while he suffered, in his own person, from the perturbations of the heart, his writings produced a more lively impression.

'As we do not always best appreciate our own talents, Goëthe maintains at present, that an author should be calm even when he is writing a passionate work; and that an artist should equally be cool, in order the more powerfully to act on the imagination of his readers. Perhaps, in early life, he would not have entertained this opinion; perhaps he was then enslaved by his genius, rather than its master; perhaps he then felt, that the sublime and heavenly sentiment being of transient duration in the heart of man, the poet is inferior to the inspiration

inspiration which animates him, and cannot enter into judgment on it, without losing it at once.

'At first we are astonished to find coldness, and even something like stiffness, in the author of Werter; but when we can prevail on him to be perfectly at his ease, the liveliness of his imagination makes the restraint which we first felt entirely disappear. He is a man of universal mind, and impartial because universal; for there is no indifference in his impartiality: his is a double existence, a double degree of strength, a double light, which, on all subjects, enlightens at once both sides of the question. When it is necessary to think, nothing arrests his course; neither the age in which he lives, nor the habits he has formed, nor his relations with social life: his eagle glance falls decidedly on the object he observes. If his soul had developed itself by actions, his character would have been more strongly marked, more firm, more patriotic; but his mind would not have taken so wide a range over every different mode of perception; passions or interests would then have traced out to him a positive path.

'Goëthe takes pleasure in his writings, as well as in his conversation, to break the thread which he himself has spun, to destroy the emotions he excites, to throw down the image he has forced us to admire. When, in his fictions, he inspires us with interest for any particular character, he soon shews the inconsistencies which are calculated to detach us from it. He disposes of the poetic world, like a conqueror of the real earth; and thinks himself strong enough to introduce, as nature sometimes does, the genius of destruction into his own works. If he were not an estimable character, we should be afraid of that species of superiority which elevates itself above all things; which degrades, and then again raises up; which affects us, and then laughs at our emotion; which affirms and doubts by turns, and always with the same success.

'I have said, that Goëthe possessed in himself alone, all the principal features of German genius; they are all indeed found in him to an eminent degree: a great depth of ideas, that grace which springs from imagination, a grace far more original than that which is formed by the spirit of society; in short, a sensibility sometimes bordering on the fantastic, but for that very reason the more calculated to interest readers, who seek in books something that may give variety to their monotonous existence, and in poetry, impressions which may supply the want of real events. If Goëthe were a Frenchman, he would be made to talk from morning till night: all the authors, who were contemporary with Diderot, went to derive ideas from his conversation, and afforded him at the same time an habitual enjoyment, from the admiration he inspired. The Germans know not how to make use of their talents in conversation, and so few people, even among the most distinguished, have the habit of interrogating and answering, that society is scarcely at all esteemed among them; but the influence acquired by Goëthe is not the less extraordinary. There are a great many people in Germany who would think genius discoverable even in the direction of a letter, if it were written by him. The admirers of Goëthe form a sort of fraternity, in which the rallying

ing words serve to discover the adepts to each other. When foreigners also profess to admire him, they are rejected with disdain, if certain restrictions leave room to suppose that they have allowed themselves to examine works, which nevertheless gain much by examination. No man can kindle such fanaticism without possessing great faculties, whether good or bad; for there is nothing but power, of whatever kind it may be, which men sufficiently dread to be excited by it to a degree of love so enthusiastic.'

The delineation of Schiller, also, in the eighth chapter, is ably executed: but it is more vague, more general, less precise, and less individual, than that of Goëthe. The two men took an opposite course in the moral progress of life. Goëthe started with the pure and fine enthusiasms, a sort of Werter in his youth: but, by practical life and speculative philosophy, he has been tamed into that sublime indifference which regards all human qualities as equally natural and necessary. Schiller started with a wild and libertine luxuriance of manners, and with a rash and desperate courage, which defied even the laws: but, by reading the heroic poets, he formed to himself purer and loftier ideas of human conduct, and endeavoured to realize them. At the period of his too early death, he seemed not only to love, but to have acquired, the fairest and most amiable human qualifications.

The ninth chapter treats of German style and versification. It is not true, as here maintained, that the Germans have long and short syllables, like the antient languages, with which they compose hexameters. Their syllables, like ours, are divided into emphatic and non-emphatic syllables. The emphatic is scanned as a long syllable. In the German substantives, *Wall* and *Wahl*, the first has a short and the second a long vowel; yet both are emphatic, being radical, syllables; and both are scanned as if they were long.

Chapter x., on poetry, contains little that is new in idea. The eleventh divides European poetry into two schools, the classical, and the romantic. The first originates in the imitation of the antients; the second, in the progressive amelioration of our native efforts to celebrate our own religion and our own exploits. Mad. de Staël truly remarks that all the more interesting poems of modern Europe belong to this autochthonous growth. Neither tragedies nor odes, nor epopeas, imitated from the antients, have any very strong hold of our feelings. — Much of this had been said in the introduction.

In the twelfth chapter, we return to the poems of Wieland. Gandalin and Giron le Courtois, are praised among the tales of chivalry. Musarion is undervalued. The King of the Black Isles, which is admirable, and is perhaps the best of all Wieland's

land's Tales, is not mentioned. Oberon, so well known in this country from the version of Mr. Sotheby, is analyzed at some extent. The French, too, have a rhimed version of this poem: but Mr. Sotheby's is an heroic resemblance, theirs is a comic caricature.

The Messiah of Klopstock is again commended; and the episode of Cidli and Semida is brought out, which appears to have suggested to the author of "the Curse of Kehama" the loves of Ereenia and Kailyal. A translation of Klopstock's Song of the Bards is given; and his odes in general are justly praised for warmth of feeling, loftiness of conception, and anxious patriotism.

Voss obtains a niche in this long and multifarious gallery. After having translated the Iliad, the Odyssey, and Theocritus, with a fidelity more admirable than his felicity, Voss wrote several original poems, chiefly of the bucolic kind. Some of them are mere dialogues of rustics, like those of Theocritus; while some hold a middle place between the works of Theocritus and the Odyssey, such as *Luise*, which is a short epopea, describing the courtship and marriage of the daughter of a country clergyman. Modern middle life among the Germans is sketched with all the detail, all the fidelity, and all the affectionate garrulity of the Homeric manner. The poem is written in hexameters; and it was imitated, and indeed surpassed, by Goëthe, in a similar poem, *Herman and Dorothea*. Voss is in poetry what Wilkie is among us in picturesque art.

The thirteenth chapter characterizes the minor poems of Goëthe and Schiller, and introduces the ballads of Bürger. In appreciating the English translations of *Lenore* *, Mad. de Staël gives the preference to that of Mr. Spencer, over that of Mr. William Taylor, junior. Some ballads of Goëthe are indicated, which have great merit. It is a form of composition little used in French literature, and well deserves to be recommended to the Parisian poets.

A concluding chapter on taste contains this elegant remark: 'M. Neckar has said in politics, "we should allow all the liberty which can co-exist with order:" I am for thus parodying the maxim, and maintaining that, in literature, we ought to require all the taste which can co-exist with genius.'

The ensuing subdivision treats of the Drama: but this we must reserve for a separate lecture.

[*To be continued.*]

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* See our xxth Vol. p. 451.; and xxiid, p. 86.

ART.

ART. III. *The Missionary;* a Poem. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1813.

NOVEL and supremely attractive to the epic muse as is the scene beyond the Atlantic wave, it may at first be a matter of wonder that she has been so tardy in making it the theatre of enterprize. Our recent intercourse with Spain, however, and our generous and magnanimous exertions for her deliverance, have brought her literature into a kind of fashion among us, and led to a more intimate acquaintance with those of her historians and poets who have recorded or sung her exploits in the southern world. Of all the provinces of this vast continent, that of Chili, the scene of the poem before us, stands unrivalled for the picturesque beauty and grandeur of its landscape; and the author, having made himself well acquainted with his subject, has by appropriate descriptions transported us to the flowery glens and stupendous mountains of Spanish America. He states, in a short preface, that the tale, to which he has given the title of *the Missionary*, is founded on a fact mentioned in all the histories of that country, and is made the subject of a poem by Alonzo d'Ercilla y Cuniga, a Spanish poet; *viz.* —'That, at the battle of Arauco in Chili, the Spaniards, under Valdivia, were destroyed by the Indians, and the victory gained in consequence of the treachery of Valdivia's page, a native of Chili, who, in the most critical moment of the engagement, turned against his master, animated his countrymen, and became afterwards the most renowned leader of the Indians against the invaders of their country.' It is added,—'The same histories relate, that at this battle, Valdivia, and an old priest, his confessor, who was present, were the only persons taken alive.'—Garcilasso, from whom all other accounts are borrowed, briefly says, —"The governor Pedro de Valdivia, and *a priest that was with him*, they took alive and tied them to trees until they had dispatched all the rest, that they might, in cool blood, consider with what death they should punish them."

The priest mentioned in this extract is the *Missionary* (Anselmo) of the poem before us; who, having been sent from Spain to the New World, occupied a hermitage in Chili, at the period at which the adventures recorded took place, and who plays a conspicuous part in the drama. By him an old Indian warrior's lost son, Lautaro, now Valdivia's attendant, had been educated, and introduced to the Christian faith, after having been taken by the Spaniards in early youth.

With a description of a beautiful valley at the foot of the Andes, the residence of the old warrior, father of Lautaro, the

the poem opens; and, from this specimen of the author's powers, the reader will anticipate the entertainment which is in reserve:

'Beneath aërial cliffs, and glittering snows,
The rush-roof of an aged warrior rose,
Chief of the mountain-tribes: high, overhead,
Huge Andes' snows, all desolate, were spread,
Where cold Sierras shot their icy spires,
And Chillan trail'd its smoke, and smould'ring fires.

'A glen beneath,—a lonely spot of rest,—
Hung, scarce discover'd, like an eagle's nest.

'Summer is in its prime;—the parrot-flocks
Darken the passing sunshine on the rocks;
The chrysomel* and purple butterfly,
Amid the clear blue light are wand'ring by;
The humming-bird, along the myrtle bow'rs,
With twinkling wing, is spinning o'er the flow'rs,
And all the farther woods and thickets ring,
So loud the cureu† and the thenca‡ sing.

'In such a spot, by frozen summits bound,
That wintry wilds and solitudes surround,
Bidding the world's tempestuous noise farewell,
Meulen‖, the gentlest fay of earth, might dwell,
And listen only, as the green leaves move,
To sounds which quietude and nature love.
And look! the cataract that bursts so high,
As not to mar the deep tranquillity,
The tumult of its dashing fall suspends,
And, stealing drop by drop, in mist descends;
Through whose illumin'd spray and sprinkling dews,
Shine to the adverse sun the broken rainbow hues.

'Check'ring, with partial shade, the beams of noon,
And arching the grey rock with wild festoon,

'* The chrysomela is a beautiful insect, of which the young women of Chili make necklaces.'

'† Birds of Chili, remarkable for the melody, richness, and compass of their notes.'

'‡ The thenca (*turdus Thenca*) is considered by Molina as a variety of the Virginian thrush, (*turdus Poliglottus*,) called the Four-hundred-tongues, from the variety of its notes.

'‖ Every warrior of Chili, according to Molina, has his attendant "nymph" or fairy,—the belief of which is nearly similar to the popular and poetical idea of those beings in Europe.—Meulen is the benevolent spirit.'

Here,

Here, its gay net-work and fantastic twine,
The purple cogul * threads from pine to pine,
And oft, as the fresh airs of morning breathe,
Dips its long tendrils in the stream beneath.
There, through the trunks, with moss and lichens white,
The sunshine darts its interrupted light,
And, 'mid the cedar's darksome boughs, illumes,
With instant touch, the Lori's scarlet plumes.

'So smiles the scene;—but can its smiles impart
Aught to console the mourning master's heart?
He heeds not now, when beautifully bright,
The humming-bird is circling in his sight;
Nor e'en, above his head when air is still,
Hears the green wood-pecker's resounding bill;
But gazing on the rocks and mountains wild,
Rock after rock, in glittering masses pil'd
To the volcano's cone, that shoots so high
Grey smoke whose column stains the middle sky,
He cries, "Oh! if thy spirit yet be fled
To the pale kingdoms of the shadowy dead,
In yonder tract of purest light above,
Dear long-lost object of a father's love,
Dost thou abide? or in the rainbow come,
Circling the scenes of thy remember'd home,
And passing with the breeze? or, in the beam
Of evening, light the desert mountain-stream?
Or at deep midnight are thine accents heard,
In the sad notes of that melodious bird,
Which, as we listen with mysterious dread,
Brings tidings from our friends and fathers dead?
These rocks, these woods, these shades, dost thou behold?
This glen, and me,—me, desolate and old?
'"Perhaps, beyond those summits, far away,
Thine eyes yet view the living light of day;
Sad, in the stranger's land, thou may'st sustain
A weary life of servitude and pain,
With wasted eye gaze on the orient beam,
And think of these white rocks and torrent-stream,
Never to hear the summer cocoa wave,
Or weep upon thy father's distant grave."'

As he is relating his grief, a scout of war appears to inform him of the resolution of the warriors to assemble, and to in-

'* A most beautiful climbing plant. The vine is of the size of pack-thread: it climbs on the trees without attaching itself to them: when it reaches the top, it descends perpendicularly; and as it continues to grow, it extends itself from tree to tree, until it offers to the eye a confused tissue, exhibiting some resemblance to the rigging of a ship.—MOLINA.'

vite

vite him to meet the other chiefs at a sacrifice. On this summons, the old warrior calls together his tribe, and addresses the Setting Sun. The scene then shifts to the Spanish camp, where Lautaro, the lost son of the old warrior, is introduced; who, with the missionary, attends Valdivia in the expedition to Chili, his native country, supposing his father to have been killed. The first canto includes one day and part of a night; the second continues through the night and the following day, the scene being still at the Spanish camp. Here Valdivia is offended by an answer of Lautaro to a question respecting the character of his countrymen; and Lautaro, being commanded to retire, repairs to the old missionary for consolation. Anselmo's hermitage and character form a striking portion of this beautiful poem:

'Lautaro turn'd, scarce heeding, from the view,
And from the blair of trumps and drums withdrew;
And now, while troubled thoughts his bosom swell,
Seeks the grey missionary's humble cell.

'Fronting the ocean, but beyond the ken
Of public view, and sounds of murm'ring men,—
Of unhewn roots compos'd, and knarled wood,
A small and rustic Oratory stood:
Upon its roof of reeds appear'd a cross,
The porch within was lin'd with mantling moss;
A crucifix and hour-glass, on each side—
One to admonish seem'd, and one to guide;
This, to impress how soon life's race is o'er;
And that, to lift our hopes where time shall be no more.
O'er the rude porch, with wild and gadding stray,
The clust'ring copu weav'd its trellis gay:
Two mossy pines, high bending, interwove
Their aged and fantastic arms above.
In front, amid the gay surrounding flowers,
A dial counted the departing hours,
On which the sweetest light of summer shone,—
A rude and brief inscription mark'd the stone:—

'"To count, with passing shade, the hours,
I plac'd the dial 'mid the flowers
That, one by one, came forth, and died,
Blooming, and with'ring, round its side.
Mortal, let the sight impart
Its pensive moral to thy heart!"'

'Just heard to trickle through a covert near,
And soothing, with perpetual lapse, the ear,
A fount, like rain-drops, filter'd through the stone,—
And, bright as amber, on the shallows shone.
Intent his fairy pastime to pursue,
And, gem-like, hovering o'er the violets blue,

The humming-bird, here, its unceasing song
Heedlessly murmur'd, all the summer long,
And when the winter came, retir'd to rest,
And from the myrtles hung its trembling nest.
No sounds of a conflicting world were near;
The noise of ocean faintly met the ear,
That seem'd, as sunk to rest the noon-tide blast,
But dying sounds of passions that were past;
Or closing anthems, when, far off, expire
The lessening echoes of the distant choir.

'Here, every human sorrow hush'd to rest,
His pale hands meekly cross'd upon his breast,
Anselmo sat: the sun, with west'ring ray,
Just touch'd his temples, and his locks of grey.
There was no worldly feeling in his eye;—
The world to him "was as a thing gone by."

'Now, all his features lit, he rais'd his look,
Then bent it thoughtful, and unclasp'd the book;
And whilst the hour-glass shed its silent sand,
A tame opossum lick'd his wither'd hand.
That sweetest light of slow-declining day,
Which through the trellis pour'd its slanting ray,
Seem'd light from heaven, when angels heard his prayers,
Resting a moment on his few grey hairs.

'When the trump echoed to the quiet spot,
He thought upon the world, but mourn'd it not;
Enough if his meek wisdom could controul,
And bend to mercy one proud soldier's soul;
Enough, if while these distant scenes he trod,
He led one erring Indian to his God.

'"Whence comes my son?" with kind complacent look
He ask'd, and clos'd again the emboss'd book.

'"I come to thee for peace!" the youth replied:
"Oh, there is strife, and cruelty, and pride,
In all the world!—When will its turmoil cease?—
Father, I come to thee for peace,—for peace!"

'"Seek peace," the Father cried, "with God above:
In his good time, all will be peace and love.—
Come, and thy wayward thoughts let me reprove."'

In canto three, which occupies the evening of the same day, the missionary tells his affecting story; and we are introduced in the fourth canto to the assembly of Indian chiefs round the fire of sacrifice, (as summoned in the first canto,) where the different warriors express their determinations to extirpate the Spaniards or perish in the attempt. The whole of this scene is well sustained. As they are sacrificing a Spanish prisoner, two warriors appear, bringing in a *white woman and child* saved from a wreck on the shore; who are committed to the care of

the warriors till the conspiracy against the Spaniards is decided. In the fifth canto, the Spanish captive and her child being confined in a rocky vault near the ocean, an Indian maid comes to console her.—For the purpose of machinery, the spirits from the Andes assemble at midnight near the valley of Arauco, when the genius of the Andes thus prophetically announces the death of Valdivia:

'Andes, thy Spirit then terrific stood,
Like a vast column o'er the stormy flood,
Whilst in dread harmony the wizard band
Sung, circling, o'er the death-devoted land,

'"Hail the day, and hail the hour,
That shall crush thy ruthless power,
Devoted Spain! along the shore,
The penguin flaps her wings in gore!
Whence that shriek? with ghastly eyes,
See a Chief abandon'd lies!

'"Victor of th' Antarctic world,
Whose crimson banners were unfurl'd
O'er the silence of the waves,—
O'er a land of bleeding slaves!
Victor, where is now thy boast;
Thy iron steeds, thy mailed host?
Hark, I hear his fainting cries!——
Spirits hence!——he dies! he dies!"'

The sixth canto relates the events attending Valdivia and his army at the city of Baldivia, previously to his march against the Chilians. Here the interest seems to be suspended by the protracted song of the Cid: but it revives in the last canto, which is full of incident and pathos.—News is brought of the assembly of Indians in the valley of Arauco. After an interview with Valdivia and the missionary, and certain arrangements, the Spanish army begins its march;—it arrives in sight of the enemy;—the appearance of the Indian warriors is described;—the fight commences;—Lautaro and the missionary are on an eminence near;—during the conflict, the former sees an old Indian warrior just about to be sabred by a Spanish soldier, and, thinking that he recognizes his father, rushes into the battle, snatches the sword of Valdivia, kills the Spaniard, proclaims his name, and turns the event of the combat, in which all the Spaniards excepting the missionary and Valdivia are massacred. This incident is thus related:

'Grim Mariantu led the Indian force
A-left; and, rushing to the foremost horse,
Hurl'd with unerring aim th' involving thong,—
Then fearless sprung amidst the mailed throng.

'Valdivia saw the horse, entangled, reel,—
And shouting, as he rode, "Castile, Castile!"
Led on the charge:—like a descending flood,
It swept, till every spur was black with blood.
His force a-right, where Collololo led,
A thousand spears went hissing over-head,
And feather'd arrows, of each varying hue,
In glancing arch, beneath the sunbeams flew.
Dire was the strife, when ardent Teucapel
Advancing, in the front of carnage, fell.
At once, Ongolmo, Elicura, rush'd,
And swaying their huge clubs together, crush'd
Horseman and horse; then bath'd their hands in gore,
And limb from limb the panting carcase tore.
Caupolican, where the main battle bleeds,
Hosts, and succeeding hosts, undaunted leads,
Till, torn and shatter'd by the ceaseless fire,
Thousands, with gnashing teeth, and clenched spears, expire.
Pierc'd by a hundred swords, Ongolmo lies,
And grasps his club terrific as he dies.

'With breathless expectation on the height,
Lautaro and Anselmo watch'd the fight:
Pale and resign'd the meek man stood, and press'd
More close the holy image to his breast.
Now nearer to the fight Lautaro drew,
When on the ground a warrior met his view,
Upon whose features memory seem'd to trace
A faint resemblance of his father's face;
O'er him a horseman, with collected might,
Rais'd his uplifted sword, in act to smite,
When the youth springing on, without a word,
Snatch'd from Valdivia's wearied grasp the sword,
And smote the soldier through the crest: a yell
Of triumph burst, as to the ground he fell.
—Lautaro shouted, "On! brave brothers, on!
Scatter them, like the snow!—the day is won!
Lo, me! Lautaro,—Attacapac's son!"

'The Indians turn: again the battle bleeds—
Cleft are the helms, and crush'd the struggling steeds.
'Mid bows, and spears, and many a mangled corse,
Lies the caparison'd and dying horse,
That bore so late his master on the plain,
With nostrils red, high neck, and mantling mane.
While still the rushing multitudes assail,
Vain is the fiery tube, the twisted mail!
The Spanish horsemen faint: long yells resound,
As the dragg'd ensign trails the gory ground:

'"Shout, for the Chief is seiz'd!"—a thousand cries
Burst forth—"Valdivia! for the sacrifice!"
And lo, in silent dignity resign'd,
The poor Anselmo, led in bonds, behind.

Yet

Yet wearing, 'mid the terrors of the scene,
The same pale placid brow, and meek unalter'd mien.'

In the eighth and last canto, the chiefs are assembled, after the battle, at the place of sacrifice. — Attacapac, brought in wounded, recollects his long-lost son, and dies. Valdivia and the missionary are now led before the assembly, to be immolated. Lautaro intercedes for them: but, though at his intreaty the missionary is spared, Valdivia is killed. This picture is drawn with a masterly pencil:

'Lautaro turn'd his eyes, and gazing round,
Beheld Valdivia, and Anselmo, bound!
One stood in arms, as with a stern despair;
His helmet cleft in twain, his temples bare,—
Where streaks of blood, that dropt upon his mail,
Serv'd but to show his face more deadly pale:
His eye-brows, dark and resolute, he bent,
And stood, compos'd, to wait the dire event.

'Still on the cross his looks Anselmo cast,
As if all thoughts of this vain world were pass'd,—
And in a world of light, without a shade,
Ev'n now his meek and guileless spirit stray'd.
Where stood the Spanish chief, a mutt'ring sound
Rose, and each club was lifted from the ground;
When, starting from his father's corse, his sword
Waving before his once-triumphant lord,
Lautaro cried, "My breast shall meet the blow:
But save — save him, to whom my life I owe!"

'Valdivia mark'd him with unmoved eye,
Then look'd upon his bonds, nor deign'd reply;
When Mariantu, — stealing with slow pace,
And lifting high his iron-jagged mace,—
Smote him to earth — a thousand voices rose,
Mingled with shouts and yells, "So fall our foes!"

'Lautaro gave to tears a moment's space,
As black in death he mark'd Valdivia's face,
Then rushing to Anselmo, cried, — "Oh, spare! —
Look on his cheek, his white and sprinkled hair; —
Chiefs, Fathers, Friends, and thou, Caupolican,
Oh, spare this innocent and holy man!'

The woman now comes in, whom Lautaro recognizes as his wife, and the orphan of Anselmo; and they both depart to the valley of the Andes, where the old warrior is buried with Christian rites by the missionary, who concludes with this prophetic and appropriately patriotic address over his grave:

'And now Anselmo, his pale brow inclin'd,
The honour'd relics, dust to dust consign'd,
With Christian rites, and sung, on bending knee,
"Eternam pacem dona, Domine."

Then rising up, he clos'd the holy book;
And lifting in the beam his lighted look,
(The cross, with meekness folded on his breast,) —
"Here, too," he cried, "my bones in peace shall rest!
Few years remain to me, and never more
Shall I behold, oh! Spain, thy distant shore!
Here lay my bones, that the same tree may wave
O'er the poor Christian's and the Indian's grave.
O may it — (when the sons of future days
Shall hear our tale, and on the hillock gaze,)
O may it teach, that charity should bind,
Where'er they roam, the brothers of mankind!
The time shall come, when wildest tribes shall hear
Thy voice, O CHRIST! and drop the slaught'ring spear.

"Yet, we condemn not him who bravely stood,
To seal his country's freedom with his blood;
And if, in after-times, a ruthless band
Of fell invaders sweep my native land, —
May she, by Chili's stern example led,
Hurl back his thunder on the assailant's head;
Sustain'd by Freedom, strike th' avenging blow,
And learn one virtue from her ancient foe!"

We have given the outlines of the argument of this spirited and pathetic composition, under a persuasion that, by thus drawing the attention of our readers to it, we shall infallibly obtain their thanks. Rarely, indeed, have we met with a poem of more sterling merit in so unpretending a form. It is an epic flight to the New World which manifests considerable genius; little that is stale and hackneyed appears in the narrative; the whole is full of incident; the poetry is in general nervous, varied, and flowing; and at the burst of patriotism, with which it concludes, we could not help exclaiming, *Bravo! Bravo!*

ART. IV. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, Parts I. and II. for 1812.

[*Article concluded from Vol.* lxxii. *p.* 47—55.]

MATHEMATICAL *and* ASTRONOMICAL PAPERS *in Part I.*

On the Grounds of the Method which La Place has given in the second Chapter of the third Book of his Mécanique Céleste, for computing the Attractions of Spheroids of every Description. By James Ivory, *A.M.*

On the Attractions of an extensive Class of Spheroids. By the Same. — As it is impossible, within the narrow limits of our pages, to give the reader a correct idea of the delicate nature of these investigations, we shall attempt nothing farther than a general

a general view of the contents of the two papers. The first contains an examination of La Place's method for computing the attraction of spheroids, and the origin of an error detected in it by Mr. Ivory; and the second is employed in giving the writer's own solution of the same problem, under certain limitations not noticed by La Place, but which are notwithstanding absolutely necessary for the complete solution. The great and deserved celebrity of the learned author of the *Mécanique Céleste*, and the high reputation of his work, rendered very delicate the task which Mr. Ivory imposed on himself: but he has displayed as much judgment in the introduction of the subject, as ingenuity and analytical skill in his investigation of it.

'In a work,' he says, 'of so great extent as the *Mécanique Céleste*, which treats of so great a variety of subjects, all of them very difficult and abstruse, it can hardly be expected that no slips nor inadvertencies have been admitted. On the other hand, the genius of the author is so far above the ordinary cast; his knowledge of the subjects he treats is so profound; and the correctness of his views is established by so many important discoveries, that so high an authority is not to be contradicted on any material point without the greatest caution, and on the best grounds. It is also to be observed, that the *Mécanique Céleste* has now been many years before the public; and although the problem of attractions is the foundation of many important researches, and is more particularly recommended to the notice of mathematicians by the novelty and uncommon turn of the analysis; on which account it may be supposed to have been scrutinized with more than ordinary curiosity; yet nobody has hitherto called in question the accuracy of the investigation. These considerations will no doubt occasion whatever is contrary to the doctrines of La Place, and more especially to his theory of the attraction of spheroids, to be received with some degree of scepticism: they ought certainly to do so; but our respect even for his authority ought not to be carried so far as to preclude all criticism of his works, or dissent from his opinions. The writings of no author, on any subject, deserve to have more respect and deference paid to them, than the writings of La Place on physical astronomy; with this no one can be more deeply impressed than the author of this discourse; and it was not till after much meditation that, yielding to the force of the proofs which are now to be detailed, he has ventured to advance any thing in opposition to the highest authority, in regard to mathematical and physical subjects, that is to be found in the present times.'

The attraction of spheroids and ellipsoids is one of the most important problems in physical astronomy; and such as can only be accurately computed by an extension of the fluxional or integral calculus, much beyond the original powers of that analysis. Previously to the improvements introduced into this science by D'Alembert, Euler, &c. the method of treating

complex physical problems was by simplifying the data in such a manner as to reduce the hypothesis to a case in which the known methods would apply: but, by the advances that have been made in this department of science within the last half century, the powers of analysis are enabled to rise to a level with the hypothesis, instead of the latter being reduced to the standard of the former. Hence it was that Huygens, in attempting the determination of the figure of the earth, assumed the whole power of its attraction to be at the centre, instead of considering it as the result of the mutual gravitation of all the particles: he also treated the problem as if the earth were merely a fluid body: both of which suppositions were admitted only for the purpose of simplifying the data; and his result, as we might expect, did not therefore agree with observation. It was the same circumstance, also, which led Newton to introduce the latter part of Huygens's hypothesis into his solution, though he avoided the former source of error, and his result accordingly approached much nearer to the truth: but mathematicians now take a much more general and extended view of the subject; and one that at the same time agrees better with the observed phænomena of nature, which will by no means admit of the hypothesis of the original fluidity of our globe. The case exactly in point is that of a solid nucleus, covered with a fluid, of no very considerable depth with regard to the radius of the nucleus; and the question is to determine what figure this body would assume from certain laws of attractions, when combined with the effects of a revolution of the whole about its own axis. This, it must be obvious, is a much more intricate inquiry than when the whole body is considered as a fluid. When a fluid, covering a solid body, has assumed a permanent figure, that figure will depend on the gravity at the surface; while the same gravity, being the combined effect of the attractions of all the molecules of the compound body, is itself produced by the form of the surface: so that the figure of the surface is in a manner both a *datum* and a *quæsitum* of the problem; and the skill of the analyst must be directed to find an expression of the intensity of the attractive force, which shall be sufficiently simple, and shall likewise preserve in it the elements of the figure of the attracting solid. La Place's investigation is of this general nature, and he is allowed, on all hands, to have displayed in it an admirable degree of skill and ingenuity: yet, says Mr. Ivory,

'After having studied the part of La Place's work, above referred to, with all the attention which the importance of the subject, and novelty of the analysis, both conspire to excite, I cannot grant that the demonstration which he has given of his proposition is conclusive.

clusive. It is defective and erroneous, because a part of the analytical expression is omitted without examination, and rejected as evanescent in all cases; whereas it is only so in particular spheroids, and not in any case on account of any thing which the author proves. Two consequences have resulted from this error; for, in the first place, the method for the attraction of spheroids, as it now stands in the *Mécanique Céleste*, being grounded on this principle, is unsupported by any demonstrative proof; and, secondly, that the method is represented as applicable to all spheroids differing but little from spheres, whereas it is true only of such as have their radii expressed by functions of a particular class.'

As to the consequences of these errors, on the physical theories which are built on this method, Mr. Ivory observes that,

'In the first place, the method we are speaking of is entirely unfit for finding *a priori*, by a direct analysis, all the possible figures compatible with a state of permanent equilibrium: for it is exclusively confined to spheroids whose radii are rational and integral functions of three rectangular co-ordinates of a point in the surface of a sphere, and it can only be employed to detect such figures belonging to that class as will satisfy the required conditions: on which account the analysis of No. 25. liv. 3. cannot be admitted as satisfactory.

'But, in the second place, although it cannot be granted that the method of La Place is general for all spheroids that nearly approach the spherical figure, it is nevertheless very extensive, and is applicable to a great variety of cases, comprehending figures of revolution as well as others to which that character does not belong. The class of spheroids that falls within the scope of the method is very extensive, embracing all round figures that differ little from spheres, if not exactly, at least as nearly as may be required. In this point of view, therefore, the real utility of La Place's solution will not be much diminished by its failing in that degree of generality which its author conceived it to possess.'

Another circumstance, however, is attached to it, which is of more importance. Besides the inaccuracy of the investigation, it is not well suited to computation, particularly as it relates to the co-efficients of La Place's expansions, which are formed one after another, beginning with the latter term; so that the first term of the series cannot be found without previously computing all the rest. This is undoubtedly an imperfection of some moment; which Mr. Ivory, in his solution, has wholly avoided.—We can only farther observe that, in our opinion, it would be highly acceptable to mathematicians to have these memoirs, with that of the same author on the attractions of ellipsoids, &c. published in a form that would render them more accessible to a number of readers, who will scarcely ever see them if confined to the volumes of the Philosophical Transactions.

Observations

Observations of a Comet, with Remarks on the Construction of its different Parts. *By* William Herschel, *LL.D., F.R.S.*— The comet, to which this memoir refers, is that brilliant meteor which became first visible to the naked eye about the middle of August 1811, and continued so till early in January 1812; during which time its splendour and magnitude attracted, in a remarkable manner, the attention not only of philosophers and astronomers, but of the public in general. Dr. Herschel has here furnished us with many interesting facts relative to the appearance of the different parts of this comet, in its various positions, as referred to the earth and to the sun; to which he has also added some ingenious remarks respecting the probable origin and physical constitution of these bodies.

It may be proper to remark that the author, in order to proceed with the greater uniformity, divides the comet into the following distinct regions; viz. the *Nucleus*, which is the central part, and supposed to be of the nature of the other planetary bodies; the *Head*, which is the bright shining part immediately surrounding the nucleus; the *Cometic Atmosphere* which, as far as his observations extend, is peculiar at least in appearance to this comet, forming a transparent dark circle which surrounds the head; the *Envelope* *, which includes all the visible part of the comet beyond the head; and the *Tail*, that long train of light which was so remarkably conspicuous in the comet of 1811.

We shall give the results of Dr. Herschel's observations in the same order in which he has detailed the observations themselves. 1. *The planetary Body in the Head of the Comet.* It was at first doubtful whether this comet had any planetary region: but, by the application of various powers from 100 to 600, its existence was ascertained, as well as its apparent and linear diameter. The former is stated to be about 0″.775; and the latter, as determined from the former, and its distance from the earth, which was at that time 114 millions of miles, is found to be 428 miles. It is obvious, however, that little dependence can be placed on these results, in consequence of the minuteness of the subtended angle.

The colour of the planetary disc was of a pale ruddy tint, like that of such equally small stars as are inclined to red. It

* What is here called the *Envelope* is named by Dr. Herschel the *Coma*, in his description of the comet of 1807; and what is here called the *Head* in that of 1812 was before denominated the *Chevelure*. We deem this an unnecessary multiplication of terms, for denoting objects which cannot but be considered as the same things, though probably under different modifications.

was

was not always situated in the centre of the head of the comet, but had with respect to it various degrees of excentricity. Its light the author supposes to be emitted from its own body; because it would otherwise have had a gibbous appearance, the phasis of its illumination at the time of observation, on the supposition of reflected light, being as 1.6 to 2: but it is even very doubtful whether this diminution of light would have been perceptible in so small a body.

Of the Head of the Comet. — The author first details his observations as to the light of this part, which he describes to be of a greenish, or bluish green cast, and of very peculiar appearance. Its apparent diameter is stated to be on Oct. 6th about 3′ 45″, and its linear diameter about 127 thousand miles.

The transparent and elastic Atmosphere about the Head. — 'In every instrument,' says the author, 'through which I have examined the comet, I perceived a comparatively very faint or rather darkish interval surrounding the head wherein the gradually diminishing light of the centre brightness was lost. This can only be accounted for by admitting a transparent elastic atmosphere to envelope the head of the comet.' The apparent diameter of this atmosphere is stated at 15′, and its linear diameter at 507 thousand miles.

The bright Envelope. — This, as we have observed, constitutes the extreme visible part of the body of the comet, immediately above the cometic atmosphere; the colour of the light of which is stated to be yellowish, and forming a striking contrast with the greenish tint of the head. Its apparent diameter was 19′; and its linear, more than 643 thousand miles.

The Tail of the Comet. — The most brilliant phænomenon that accompanies a comet is the stream of light which we call its tail; and the computed length of which, in the present instance, on the 15th of October, was upwards of 100 millions of miles, extending over an arc, at that time, of 23½ degrees. Its apparent greatest breadth, at the same time, was about 6¾ degrees, answering to about 15 millions of miles.

Dr. H.'s following observations relate to the gradual return of the comet to its original nebulous appearance; the progressive vanishing of the planetary body; the disappearance of the transparent part of the atmosphere, under the cover of the scattered light of the contracted envelope; the uncommon appearance on the dissolution of the envelope; the alterations in the angle of its direction; the shortening of the tail; and the increasing darkness between the streams that inclose the tail. These changes, he thinks, cannot arise from the increased distance of the comet, which could only occasion an alteration in the

the apparent magnitude of the several parts, but from the actual physical alteration which he remarked in the construction of the comet.

Hitherto, we have attended Dr. Herschel only in his minute description of very accurate and patient observations: but we must now accompany him into the airy regions of fancy and conjecture.

On the real Construction of the Comet and its various Parts. — Here the author states that, from his observations, no doubt can be entertained respecting the spherical form of the nucleus, the head, and the cometic atmosphere: but, as to the bright envelope, he maintains that it can have no other form than that of an inverted hollow cone, terminating at its vertex in an equally hollow cap, of nearly a hemispherical construction; the sides of which hollow cone cannot, he thinks, be of any considerable thickness, since it would otherwise have taken away, by the scattered rays of its lustre, the appearance of the dark or transparent atmosphere above mentioned, and have prevented the appearance of such extremely small stars through it as were seen in the course of his investigations. The same hypothesis explains the reason of the dark parts seen in the tail towards the middle of its breadth: which may be referred to the less thickness of luminous matter through which they were viewed, compared with that of the sides of the cone; the ratio of which he states to be about as 5 to 1.

The Doctor next proceeds to examine the solar agency on the production of cometic phænomena. Here he observes that,

'In its approach to a perihelion, a comet becomes exposed to the action of the solar rays, which, we know, are capable of producing light, heat, and chemical effects. That their influence on the present comet has caused an expansion and decomposition of the cometic matter, we have experienced in the growing condition of the tail, and shining quality of its light, which seems to be of a phosphoric nature. The way by which these effects have been produced may be supposed to be as follows.

'The matter contained in the head of the comet would be dilated by the action of the sun, but chiefly in that hemisphere of it which is immediately exposed to the solar influence; and being more increased in this direction than on the opposite side, it would become excentric when referred to the situation of the body of the comet: but as the head is what draws our greatest attention, on account of its brightness, the little planetary body would appear to be in the excentric situation in which we have seen it.'

On similar principles, the author accounts for the appearance of the cometic atmosphere; which, in all probability, he says, we should never have discovered, had not the action of the sun caused

caused the phosphoric matter (which, when at a distance from that body, is collected in a spherical form about the head,) to rise to a certain height in it, thus rendering its existence certain, or at least extremely probable. — After these remarks, with some others relative to the tail, and the return of the comet to its nebulous appearance, Dr. H. concludes his memoir with what he imagines to be the result of a comet's perihelion passage; and these conjectures, though speculative, being novel and ingenious, we shall transcribe them.

Of the Result of a Comet's perihelion Passage.

'The quality of giving out light, although it may always reside in a comet, as it does in the immensity of the nebulous matter which I have shown to exist in the heavens, is exceedingly increased by its approach to the sun. Of this we should not be so sensible, if it were not accompanied with an almost inconceivable expansion and rarefaction of the luminous substance of the comet about the time of its perihelion passage.

'It is admitted, on all hands, that the act of shining denotes a decomposition in which, at least, light is given out; but that many other elastic volatile substances may escape at the same time, especially in so high a degree of rarefaction, is far from improbable.

'Then since light certainly, and very likely other subtile fluids, also escape in great abundance, during a considerable time, before and after a comet's nearest approach to the sun, I look upon a perihelion passage, in some degree, as an act of consolidation.

'If this idea should be admitted, we may draw some interesting conclusions from it. Let us, for example, compare the phænomena that accompanied the comet of 1807 with those of the present one. The first of these in its approach to the sun came within 61 millions of miles of it, and its tail, when longest, covered an extent of 9 millions. The present one, in its perihelion, did not come so near the sun by nearly 36 millions of miles, and nevertheless acquired a tail 91 millions longer than that of the former. The difference in their distances from the earth when these measures were taken was but about 2 millions.

'Then may we not conclude, that the consolidation of the comet of 1807, when it came to the perihelion, had already been carried to a much higher degree than that of the present one, by some former approach to our sun, or to other similarly constructed celestial bodies, such as we have reason to believe the fixed stars to be?

'And that comets may pass round other suns than ours is rendered probable from our knowing, as yet, with certainty, the return of only one comet among the great number that have been observed.

'Since, then, from what has been said, it is proved that the influence of the sun upon our present comet has been beyond all comparison greater than it was upon that of 1807; and since we cannot suppose our sun to have altered so much in its radiance as to be the cause of the difference, have we not reason to suppose, that the matter of the present comet has, either very seldom, or never before, passed through some perihelion, by which it could have been so much condensed

denied as the preceding comet? Hence, may we not surmise that the comet of 1807 was more advanced in maturity than the present one; that is to say, that it was comparatively a much older comet?'

As this idea of age, the author seems to apprehend, may not suit the opinions of some of his readers, he next suggests a different hypothesis, in some measure free from this objection: but we cannot follow him farther in these regions of conjecture.

Part II.

Observations of a Second Comet, with Remarks on its Construction. *By* William Herschel, *L.L.D., F.R.S.* — This comet was visible in a good telescope in January 1812, before the other disappeared, but was, we believe, never perceptible by the naked eye during its short stay in our regions. Its appearance in the telescope was materially different from that of its predecessor. Instead of a brilliant head and very small nucleus, the light was here very faint, and the nucleus very large. Its apparent diameter, when its distance was 1.0867, that of the earth from the sun being 1, was 5″2744; and this gives 2637 miles for its linear diameter, which is about the size of the moon. Dr. Herschel had also reason to suppose that it did not shine by its own light, but by means of the reflected rays of the sun. We confess that we do not like to admit principles so diametrically opposite, in the case of bodies so obviously of the same nature. Might it not be supposed that the planetary discs of all comets shine by reflected light, while their heads shine by their own phosphoric nature? This would account for the different appearances observed in different comets, without attributing to them qualities that are directly opposite to each other. Dr. H. computes that the tail of this comet did not exceed 659,000 miles; while that of the other was 100 millions. On the whole, according to his idea of the consolidation of comets, this had nearly arrived at its planetary state; being very little more affected by its perihelion passage than a planet would have been under similar circumstances.

Of the Attraction of such Solids as are terminated by Planes; and of Solids of greatest Attraction. *By* Thomas Knight, *Esq.*—The general problem which the author proposes in this memoir is the following: 'Any solid regular or irregular, terminated by plane surfaces, being given, to find both in quantity and direction its action on a point given in position, either within it or without it.' Mr. Knight observes that mathematicians, in treating of the attraction of bodies, have almost entirely confined their attention to those solids which are bounded by curved surfaces: Mr. Playfair being the only writer who has touched on the subject of the attraction of solids bounded by

by planes, and this only of two different figures; viz. the parallelopiped, and isosceles pyramid, with a rectangular base, on a point at its vertex.

The fact is that the partiality, which mathematicians have manifested for the former class of problems, arises from their application to and intimate connection with physical problems of the highest interest in astronomical researches; while the latter are much more limited in point of application, and may be considered, at least many of them, as subjects of curiosity rather than of real utility. Since, however, cases occur, particularly in the determination of the attraction of mountains, in which it is desirable to ascertain the quantity and direction of the attractive power of an irregular mass on a given point, we are far from considering Mr. Knight's memoir as an useless speculation; and, with regard to its execution, it is certainly very creditable to his genius and mathematical talents. We are therefore sorry that the nature of the subject, and the necessity of diagrams to explain the principles of the investigations, will not admit of our entering into that detail respecting it to which we should otherwise be disposed. Some of the results, however, are too general and interesting to be passed unnoticed. We select the following as not requiring the assistance of diagrams.

1. The attraction of a sphere is to that of an infinite circular cylinder of the same diameter (on a point at the surface of each) as $\frac{2}{3}$ to 1, which is the ratio of the solidity of a sphere to that of its circumscribing cylinder.

2. The attraction of the whole infinite cylinder, on p, is to the attraction of that half which is farthest from that point, as the circumference of a circle is to its diameter.

3. Consequently, the attraction of the nearest half is to that of the farthest half, as the difference between the circumference and diameter of a circle is to the diameter, or *nearly* as 2 to 1.

4. The equation of the curve, which bounds the plane of greatest attraction, is expressed thus, $a^2 x^2 - (x^2 + y^2)^2 = 0$, and consequently, by the revolution of this curve about its axis, the solid of greatest attraction will be generated.

5. Of all infinitely long cylinders, having the areas of their bases or transverse sections equal, that which has a circle for its base will exert the greatest action on a point at its surface.

6. The solid of revolution which shall have the greatest attraction on a point in its axis, when the force is inversely as the mth power of the distance, and the density is either uniform or any function whatever of x and T, (T being the perpendicular let fall from any particle to the axis of the solid, and

and x the distance between the foot of that perpendicular and the attracted point,) will have for the equation of its generating curve, $a^m x = (x^2+y^2)^{\frac{m+1}{2}}$; which, when $m = 2$, as in the case of gravity, becomes $a^2 x = (x^2+y^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}$, or $a^2 x^2 = (x^2+y^2)^3$, as before shewn.

7. In the case of an infinitely long cylinder of greatest attraction, the force being still supposed to vary inversely as the mth power of the distance, the general equation of its base will be $\frac{u}{(x^2+y^2)^{\frac{m-1}{2}}} + C = 0$; which, when $m = 2$, becomes, including the correction, $\frac{x^2}{x^2+y^2} = 1$; so that the infinitely long cylinder of greatest attraction, with this value of m, will be an infinitely long rectangle, with its edge turned to the attracted point.

If $m = 3$, the equation is $ax = x^2+y^2$: if $m = 4$, the equation is $a^2 x = (x^2+y^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}$, which is Playfair's curve of equal attraction.

8. If m be any whole number, and the density be either uniform or as any function of x and y, (these representing still the same as No. 6.,) the same curve which, by revolving, generates the solid of greatest attraction when the force is inversely as the mth power, will be the base of the infinitely long cylinder of greatest attraction, when the force is inversely as the $(m+1)$th power of the distance.

The last general theorem is extremely interesting, both for its simplicity and its universality; and several more of a similar kind might have been enumerated but for the reason above stated. Many others, also, not contained in the memoir, might be proposed and solved on the same principle.

On the Penetration of a Hemisphere by an indefinite Number of equal and similar Cylinders. By the Same. — A partial case of this problem was first proposed by Viviani, and solved by him on pure geometrical principles; while some other mathematicians completed the same by the application of the new analysis. The problem, however, here given, is much more general than the above mentioned; viz. 'To pierce a hemisphere, perpendicularly on the plane of its base, with any number of equal and similar cylinders; of such a kind, that, if we take away from the hemisphere those portions of the cylinders that are within it, the remaining part shall admit of an exact cubature; and if we take away, from the surface of the hemisphere, those portions cut out by the cylinders, the remaining surface shall admit of an exact quadrature.'

Mr. Knight illustrates both his construction and his investigations by a diagram: but the former may be comprehended without that aid, viz. Let $2n$ be the required number of cylinders, and conceive any radius CB, of the circular base of the hemisphere, to be drawn from the centre C; on each side of which let radii be drawn to every point in the circumference. On each of these radii CA, set off from the centre the cosine of n times the angle BCA; and the curve, passing through these several points, will form the base of one of the equal and similar cylinders required, which will always be algebraical while n is a whole number. It is very remarkable that, with this construction, the remaining parts both of the solid and its surface will continue the same, whatever be the number of cylinders: the former being expressed by $\frac{2}{3}r^3$, and the latter by $4r^2$; where r denotes the radius of the hemispherical base.

Observations on the Measurement of three Degrees of the Meridian conducted in England by Lieut. Colonel Mudge. By Don Joseph Rodriguez. (*Communicated by Joseph Mendoza Rios, Esq. F.R.S.*)—It is the constant practice of the committee of the Royal Society to publish, at the beginning of every new volume, an advertisement, informing the reader that they do not deem themselves responsible as a body for the opinions contained in any of the papers which may appear in their Transactions, nor for the certainty of the facts there stated; the general rule for their decision being "the importance and singularity of the subjects, or the advantageous manner of treating them, without pretending to answer for the certainty of the facts, or the propriety of the reasonings contained in the several papers so published; which must still rest on the credit or judgment of their respective authors."—It will be particularly necessary for the reader to bear this in mind in the perusal of the present memoir; the purport of which may be expressed in a very few words. It contains a charge of inaccuracy in the execution of the Trigonometrical Survey of England, preferred by Don Joseph Rodriguez, one of the Spanish commissioners associated with MM. Biot and Arago, for the continuation of the French arc from Barcelona to Formentera. This connection of the author with the French philosophers leads us to wish that the present paper had not appeared in the Transactions of the Royal Society: since, without attributing to Don J. Rodriguez any invidious motive, his impartiality might fairly have been doubted, in any comparison between the two measurements; and certainly the paper cannot be attentively read without perceiving a strong prejudice in favour of the French operations. In speaking of them, the writer says, 'The

details of their operations, observations, and calculations, were subsequently examined by a committee of men of science, many of whom were foreigners, collected at Paris, who confirmed their results, and by the sanction of such a union of talents, gave such a degree of credit and authenticity to their conclusions as could scarcely be acquired by other means;' and we have no doubt that the author, notwithstanding the advertisement above mentioned, will in future conceive that he is justified in pleading the sanction of the committee of the Royal Society for the publication of his memoir, as equally conclusive of the inaccuracy of the English measurement.

After the preceding compliments to Delambre and Méchain, and similar tributes to Biot, Arago, and Svanberg, he proceeds to his examination of the English survey.

'These new measures,' he says, alluding to the three former, 'were found to confirm, in a remarkable manner, the general results of those which had preceded, and gave very nearly the same proportion for the excentricity and other dimensions of the globe, so that there would not have remained the smallest doubt respecting the figure of the earth being flattened at the poles, had there not been a fourth measurement performed in England, at the same time as that undertaken in Lapland, the results of which were entirely the reverse. This measurement, which comprised an arc of 2° 50′, was undertaken by Lieut. Col. Mudge, with instruments of the most perfect construction that had ever yet been finished by any artist, contrived and executed for that express purpose by the celebrated Ramsden. The details of the observations and other operations of Lieut. Col. Mudge may be seen in the volume of the Philosophical Transactions for the year 1803; and one cannot but admire the beauty and perfection of the instruments employed by that skilful observer, as well as the scrupulous care bestowed on every part of the service on which he was engaged. Bengal lights were employed on this occasion, as objects at the several stations, and their position appears to have been determined, with the utmost precision, by the theodolite of Ramsden, which reduces all angles to the plane of the horizon, and with such a degree of correctness, that the error in the sum of the three angles of any triangle is scarcely, in any instance, found to exceed three seconds of a degree, and in general not more than a small fraction of a second.

'Accordingly, the geodetical observations were conducted with a degree of exactness which hardly can be exceeded; and even if we suppose for a moment, that the chains made use of in the measurement of the bases, may not admit of equal precision with the rods of platina employed in France, nevertheless the degree of care employed in their construction, in the mode of using them, and the pains taken to verify their measures, were such, that no error that can have occurred in the length of the base, could make any perceptible difference in the sides of the series of triangles, of which the whole extent does not amount to so much as three degrees.

'Nevertheless,

'Nevertheless, the results deduced by the author from this measure alone, would lead to the supposition that the earth, instead of being flattened at the poles, is in fact more elevated at that part than at the equator, or at least that its surface is not that of a regular solid. For the measures of different degrees on the meridian, as reduced by Lieut. Col. Mudge, increase progressively towards the equator.

'The following table of the different measures of a degree in fathoms is given by the author in his memoir:

Latitude.	Fathoms.
52° 50′ 30″ - - -	60,766
52 38 56 - - -	60,769
52 28 6 - - -	60,794
52 2 20 - - -	60,820
51 51 4 - - -	60,849
51 25 18 - - -	60,864
51 13 18 - - -	60,890
51 2 54 - - -	60,884

'The singularity of these results excites a suspicion of some incorrectness in the observations themselves, or in the method of calculating from them. The author has not informed us in his memoir, what were the formulæ which he employed in the computations of the meridian; but one sees by the arrangement of his materials, that he made use of the method of the perpendiculars, without regard to the convergence of the meridians; and although this method is not rigorously exact, it can make but a very few fathoms more in the total arc, and will have very little effect upon the magnitude of each degree. It is therefore a more probable supposition, that if any errors exist, they have occurred in the astronomical observations, but it is scarcely possible to determine the amount of the errors, or in what part of the arc they may have occurred, excepting by a direct and rigorous computation of the geodetical measurement. I have, therefore, been obliged to have recourse to calculations, which I have conducted according to the method and formulæ invented and published by M. Delambre.'

We cannot enter very minutely into the method pursued by Don J. Rodriguez for the detection of this supposed error, but we intend to give a general view of it. We must first, however, be allowed to make one observation on what we consider to be a want of ingenuousness in the preceding passage: we allude to that part in which the author asserts that, admitting an error, there was more reason *à priori* to suspect it to lie in the astronomical observations, than in either the geodetical observations or the calculations; and that he therefore merely went over the latter in consequence of their connection with the former, and not with the expectation of detecting any inaccuracy in this part. Now we appeal to any man, who is conversant in these matters, whether, supposing an error to

exist, it is not much more likely to occur in the geodetical operations or calculations, than in the astronomical observations; and we have little doubt that such was the author's own opinion in the first instance. The fact is, however, that he had gone over the calculations before he wrote this paragraph, and found all that part extremely correct; and then, in order that it might act least against his own conclusion, he states it as a circumstance which was *à priori* to be expected. Had the author said, "my first idea was that the error was in the geodetical part of the operations: but, on recomputing them on different principles from those that were employed by Col. Mudge, I find them perfectly correct; and therefore, the error must be in the astronomical observations;"—had he, we say, given the sentence in this form, it would have put us on our guard with respect to admitting the latter inference: whereas, by the turn which he has given to it, he in some measure prepares the reader to receive his conclusion, by referring him to the astronomical observations as the most probable source of error.

Let us now take a concise view of Don J. Rodriguez's investigations and conclusions.

For this purpose, without inquiring at present concerning the nature of the particular elements which the author has employed in his calculations, it will be sufficient to observe that they are deduced from other measurements, with which the English measurement does not agree, at least in the subdivision of the arc; for, as to the whole arc, they coincide as nearly as we might expect, on the supposition of the earth being a perfect spheroid.

With regard to the absolute measured length of the arc in fathoms, it has been verified, as we have seen, by the computation of the whole series of triangles, from Col. Mudge's own data; and therefore no doubt remains as to the accuracy of this part of the undertaking. The whole angular measure of the arc also agrees very nearly with the result which might have been expected, by assuming the earth to be a perfect spheroid, of certain excentricity, and its equatorial radius of given magnitude: but, if the same elements be used in the subdivided arc, the results do not agree; and this disagreement is that which constitutes the singularity of the English measurement.

Now Don Joseph Rodriguez, in order to discover the cause of this disagreement, assumes the earth to be a perfect spheroid, of which the compression is somewhere between $\frac{1}{311}$ and $\frac{1}{310}$, and its equatorial radius between certain limits corresponding with these degrees of excentricity. With these elements, he computes what the number of degrees of the above measured

sured arc ought to be on the above hypotheses, and finds that it nearly agrees with that which is deduced from Colonel Mudge's observations, which in course ought to have been expected; because he knew, previously to his computation, that the whole arc, compared with that with which he compared those of Delambre and Méchain, would give nearly the same elements, and consequently these elements would give nearly the same results. This coincidence therefore proves nothing with regard to the accuracy of the two extreme observations of the English arc, but merely the near agreement between the results of this measurement and that of Delambre, which in fact was previously known. For the same reason, the disagreement between the observed and computed parts of the subdivided arc is no proof of any *inaccuracy* in the intermediate observations; it merely shews their want of agreement with the French results, and even with the whole arc of which they form the parts; — a circumstance also previously known, and which in fact gave rise to this author's investigations. Hence we may conclude, without any farther observations, that this memoir proves nothing but the author's extreme partiality for French science; because, unless it be admitted as an axiom that the French measures are perfectly correct, and that the earth is a perfect spheroid of rotation, not the least dependance can be placed on the conclusion which the author has drawn from his investigation.

As to the French measurement, we do not dispute its accuracy; we know and respect the talents of the two able mathematicians under whom it was conducted; and we wish not to estimate its correctness by elements and hypotheses drawn from the English trigonometrical survey: but, at the same time, we deny the right which Don J. Rodriguez has assumed, of judging of the latter by inferences deduced from the former.

We conceive that we have justly arrived at the above conclusions, without any reference to the particular elements which the author has assumed; let us now, before we finish, bestow a few lines on this subject. In the first place, it must be obvious to every reader that, unless the earth be a spheroid, *and very regularly so*, as the author has assumed, not one word of his observations, nor one line of his calculations, deserves a moment's attention: the first question, therefore, naturally is, "What is the opinion of philosophers on this subject?" to which we may answer, that nearly all, whose judgment is most to be respected, agree that the earth is not an uniform spheroid, nor even any solid of rotation. They have been led to this conclusion from the discordancy between the different

degrees of excentricity, drawn from a comparison of different measures; these varying in all degrees between $\frac{1}{115}$ and $\frac{1}{334}$, both extremes arising out of a comparison of French measures with each other; see La Place, *Exposition*, p. 56.; also Puissant, *Geodesia*, p. 187. and p. 222. Yet, in direct contradiction to these authorities, and numerous others that might be brought, Don J. Rodriguez assumes the earth to be a spheroid, *and very regularly so*, and on this *ipse dixit* alone he wishes to destroy all confidence in the results of the English measurement.

Another cirumstance, we think, is conclusive as to the credit that is due to the present memoir. According to the writer, it appears that the principal astronomical error must have occurred at the station at Arbury Hill, where the computed and observed latitudes differ little less than 5″ which discrepancy he attributes wholly to Col. Mudge. Now it happens unfortunately for Don Joseph Rodriguez, that the latitude of this place is readily verified by means of Blenheim Observatory, which is situated on very nearly the same meridian; and the distance between the parallels of latitude of the two places is only 139,322 feet. This distance gives for the difference of latitude 22′ 59″33; and the absolute difference of the two, as determined from the observations made at Arbury Hill by Col. Mudge, and those made for five years at Blenheim, gives for this difference 22′ 59″ 6; which is a most remarkable coincidence, confirming at once the accuracy of the astronomical observations at this station, and therefore also of necessity manifesting the fallacy of Don Rodriguez's investigations, or at least of the inferences which he deduces from them.

That the English survey presents very singular results, we readily admit; and that philosophers should feel a desire of accounting for them, and other similar anomalies, independently of an irregular formation in our globe, we can easily imagine; because, while a system of uniformity and order is almost every where apparent in the grandest operations of nature, the mind seems unwilling to admit a deviation from it in this particular instance. We must, however, be careful that the judgment is not biassed on this account; the *perfect* spheroidal figure of the earth is but an hypothesis; and an hypothesis, not completely confirmed by experiment or observation, is always to be admitted with extreme caution. It is this principle, introduced by Bacon, and adopted by Newton, which places modern philosophy so pre-eminently above that of the antients; and it is our duty to preserve it unimpaired.

This consideration will not prevent us from examining, very minutely, any deviations from what appears to be a rational hypothesis; it only guards us against a too precipitate conclusion, and

and teaches us rather to bend the hypothesis to the experiment than the experiment to the hypothesis.

The near approach of the general figure of the earth to that of a perfect spheroid is certainly a rational hypothesis: yet, at present, without making a partial selection of results, it is rather contradicted than confirmed by experiment; and therefore it ought not to be assumed as a fact in any philosophical inquiry. Even if this be admitted, several circumstances still remain which may affect the results of geodetical operations, besides those of inaccuracy in the observations; of the former, local attractions are perhaps the most common, which may have been more or less experienced in all undertakings of this kind. It is also not improbable, as Col. Mudge has suggested, that our insular situation, with an immense continent on one side and an extended ocean on the other, may be very unfavourable for delicate astronomical observations. While, therefore, so many sources may be assigned for the anomalies in question, even after the spheroidal figure of the earth is admitted, it seems unfair to attribute them to errors in the practical operations; particularly in a case in which all such as could be submitted to re-examination were found so remarkably correct and satisfactory.

We have dwelt rather longer on this memoir than we at first intended: but we trust that the importance of the subject will be a sufficient apology.

On a Periscopic Camera Obscura and Microscope. *By* William Hyde Wollaston, *M.D., Sec. R.S.* — Dr. Wollaston's theory and construction of what he terms periscopic spectacles are both well understood. In this paper, he has extended the same principles to the Camera Obscura and Microscope. The object, in both cases, is to obtain a more extended and distinct field of vision, by the substitution of a meniscus, instead of the principal lens, in the Camera Obscura, and by a particular application of the lenses in the microscope. The principles are precisely the same, as to the application of the meniscus, both in the spectacles and in the Camera Obscura: but still the former is more easily demonstrated on mathematical principles than the latter; and the author has therefore recourse to experiment, which sufficiently illustrates the nature and extent of his improvement in this instrument, but which, in consequence of the diagrams, cannot be explained in this place.

Having thus discharged our long-standing debt of attention to the Transactions of this learned body for the year 1812, we mean in our next number to pay our respects to their memoirs for 1813.

ART. V. *A Critical Examination of the Writings of Richard Cumberland, Esq.*; with an occasional literary Inquiry into the Age in which he lived, and the Contemporaries with whom he flourished. Also, Memoirs of his Life, and an Appendix, containing Twenty-six original Letters, relating to a Transaction not mentioned in his Memoirs. A new and improved Edition. By William Mudford. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 670. 1l. 1s. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

AT the sale of the library of an eminent scholar of the last age, a book was put up by the auctioneer with this puff, that it contained the Doctor's manuscript-notes. Thus recommended, it obtained a high price: but, when the happy purchaser took home his lot, the only note which it contained was in these words, — "*This book is not worth reading.*" After having patiently proceeded through the present minute and elaborate examination of the numerous writings of Mr. Cumberland, within a page or two of the end we meet with a note by Mr. Mudford which is very similar in its purport to the above, and which ought to have saved him and the reader much trouble. In reference to the works of Cumberland which he has been so critically analyzing, he observes that 'a very small portion of them will be required by posterity.' What is the amount of this confession? It is a declaration that he had been wasting his talents in discussing the merits of writings which will never be sought. — Cumberland was a very voluminous author; as a play-wright "breeding every season," and in some seasons more than once: but it was not necessary that his biographer and critical examiner should now enter into a full discussion of the qualities of *all* his dramas, and dissect the several characters which they contain. After the public has been long apprized of the nature of an author's productions, and has decided on the life of some and the death of others, no good purpose seems likely to be answered by making the dead men pass a second time through the fire.

If we advert to these volumes as containing Memoirs of Cumberland's life, it is singular that Mr. M. should allege, as he does at p. 256., 'his avowed purpose and design to be to produce an *original* work,' when his narrative treads in the steps of the very Memoir which the deceased author had given of himself. Indeed, so largely had Mr. M. borrowed from the book on which his own is founded, that (as we are told in the second preface) 'the publishers of Mr. Cumberland's *Memoirs* conceived that the extracts which he had selected from them had a tendency to diminish the value of their property, and obtained therefore an injunction restraining the sale of this work:' an injunction which has obliged Mr. M., in the *new* and *improved* edition, to cut out long passages which he had

borrowed from the Memoirs of Cumberland written by himself *, and very dextrously to fill up the places thus made vacant by rehearsing the substance of the expunged extract, and by subjoining apposite observations; so that the paging of the second edition exactly corresponds with that of the first, and the Index at the end is adapted alike to both.

For undertaking a new life of Cumberland, perhaps little apology would be required from Mr. Mudford. He who sits down to compile Memoirs of himself may be better acquainted with the subject of his book than any body else: but it is not very probable that he will tell all that he knows; and it may be fairly suspected, without a violation of candour, that judgment will at times be blinded by self-love. Different motives may be assigned for the same action, and a different colouring given to the same train of facts. It is manifest from the letters published in the Appendix to this edition, that Mr. Cumberland did not reveal all the material transactions of his life; and that his ministerial patrons are not chargeable with *all* that *neglect* of him, of which he so bitterly complains in his Memoirs. His case of the Spanish mission, as told by himself, appears hard in the extreme, and a mystery is thrown over the affair which it is now difficult to unravel. The perplexing circumstance is not only that the King of Spain, to whose court Cumberland was sent, should offer to pay him his expences, and that our court should withhold them: but that the King of Spain should make the proposal through his minister, accompanied by the declaration of a belief that these expences would not be liquidated by the court of which Mr. C. was an accredited agent. † It would hence appear that Cumberland did not execute his delicate business as a diplomatist to the satisfaction of his employers: but, if the ministry refused him the remuneration which he sought on that ground, they had previously allowed him to sell the patent of his office of Provost Marshal in the province of South Carolina, for a larger sum than he had expended in Spain, though this circumstance is not noticed in the account which he gives of himself. It will be said that his profitable sale of the patent of Provost Marshal was in 1770, and that his letter of recall from Spain was in 1781; and that the advantage obtained in one instance could not be fairly deemed a consideration for his loss in the other: but, however the case really stood, it is a fact that not even a memorial to

* See M. R. Vol. I. N. S. p. 225.

† The expressions of the Spanish minister's letter to Mr. C. are remarkable: 'I have reason to apprehend you will find yourself abandoned and deceived by your employers,' p. 372.

Lord

Lord North obtained him any redress; and the singular assertion made by the King of Spain through his minister, on Cumberland's taking leave at Madrid, was verified. Will this curious affair be ever elucidated?

The facts which Mr. C. has related of himself afford ground for biographical comment, and may be considered as materials in the hands of a writer who undertakes a more finished representation of him than his own Memoirs afford. 'These,' says Mr. M., 'will always be regarded as an authentic history of his private and public life, as far as he has thought it proper to disclose the particulars of either; and they will always be esteemed for that fund of literary anecdote which they contain, and in the detail of which Cumberland peculiarly excels. A great chasm, however, they must leave in every thing relating to his writings, except the simple statement of their production, or of the events connected with their success or failure: and this chasm it has been my object to fill up in the present work.' We must allow that, in the filling up of this chasm, we find much to applaud; and, if Mr. M. had not descended to that minuteness of criticism in noticing many of his hero's inferior performances, to which we have already alluded, we should have been still better pleased. His opinion of Cumberland and of his literary productions is offered with great freedom; and he gives us to understand that, had his conduct as a critic been less unfettered, the proprietors of Mr. Cumberland's works would not have applied for an injunction restraining the sale of the first edition. With this business, however, we have no concern. As little are we interested in the misunderstanding between Sir James Bland Burgess and the author. Mr. Mudford has shewn a high spirit, and from the beginning of his work to the end manifests a determination to think and speak for himself. Regarding the incidents of Cumberland's life as so many pegs on which he might hang his remarks, Mr. M. digresses on every occasion into reflections, with the propriety and justice of which we have often been pleased. Blame as well as praise is applied to his hero; and sometimes he artfully contrives to lash other authors over that gentleman's shoulders, of which practice Dr. Drake and Mrs. Inchbald may probably complain.

The work commences with some notice of Mr. Cumberland's literary ancestors, and particularly of Dr. Bentley his maternal grandfather; and at the end of the first chapter we are directed to what is called a curious coincidence between a passage in one of Bentley's Boyle's Lecture Sermons and some lines in Pope's Essay on Man: but with this coincidence we are not so much impressed as Mr. M. seems to be; and we are surprised

that he should object to Mr. Pope's introduction of the fiction of the "music of the spheres." This was allowable in a poet, though not in a preacher. The beautiful lines so often quoted, "Die of a rose in aromatic pain," has no counterpart in Bentley's prose.

Having dismissed Mr. Cumberland's descent, the biographer comes in the second chapter to the professed object of his undertaking, which is 'to write something about him, his works, his associates, and his friends, which he could not have written if he had wished, and which perhaps, he would not have wished to have written if he could.' Mr. C.'s parental and school education pass in review. The advantages which he drew from having a mother who possessed a cultivated mind are not passed over in silence; and Mr. M. contends for rendering our women so far accomplished that they may be proper companions for sensible husbands, and capable of instructing their children. He is averse to the plan of making 'household cares and domestic management the chief business of a woman's life, to the utter exclusion of all ornamental, of all elegant, and of all useful acquirements.' It is his opinion, also, that the business of the education of youth should be conducted more at home than it is at the present day; and, weighing the advantages and disadvantages of a public education, he decides against it.

'The opportunities thus presented of laying the foundation of intimacies with men capable and likely to advance our fortunes in after-life, are among the strongest arguments which the supporters of a public system of education have to advance. They are indeed arguments of great weight and importance; but I fear the instances are fewer than might be hoped where school-connections have ripened into those of manhood; or where the noble play-mate has remembered his fellow when the lapse of years has led him to the possession of honours, wealth, and influence. Some cases, no doubt, may be adduced, in opposition to this, proving the ultimate benefit of friendships formed at so early a period of life between boys of elevated and inferior conditions: and I wish, indeed, that they may be numerous, for I am afraid they are the only advantages which can be plausibly urged against the many evils attendant upon public education. The almost certain ruin of the moral character, the contagion of vice, the destruction of that simplicity of manners which is at once the offspring and the defence of virtue, the assumption of rude and boisterous habits which deform the outward man and corrupt his general demeanor, and the gradual relaxation of those ties of kindred by which social life is supported and adorned, are some of the evils to be expected from public education; while they may all be avoided, and every certain benefit secured (for that which may arise from serviceable connections is but contingent) by private instruction.'

Women, whose natural duties are domestic, need not and ought not to be educated in crowds, or in public seminaries; a situation

situation which is very likely to make them assured and masculine: but men, who are to go out into the world, and particularly those who are intended for any of the public professions, require more or less of a public education. The present fault seems to consist in their being sent too early to the public seminary, before their minds are sufficiently imbued with those moral and religious principles and habits, on the presence or absence of which depends their destiny. Solomon says, "Train up a child in the way he should go:" but how many children are sent from home to be, in a great measure, their own masters *before they are trained?* What mere boys go to our public universities! What sums do they squander there, and how do they squander them? Is this education?—All, however, who go to college have not the means of being profuse spendthrifts: but a few examples of profusion in our universities have a bad influence, which reaches much farther than it is commonly supposed to extend. Mr. C. and Mr. M. are at variance on the subject of academical education. We refer the reader to p. 64. *et seq.*

We must not, we cannot, follow Mr. M. over the ground which we have already traversed with Mr. C. in his account of himself in his own Memoirs; nor can we even glance at every digression or episode by which the present critical narrative is diversified. Enough, we think, will be effected by us in this article, if by a few selections we enable the reader to form some idea of the nature of Mr. M.'s undertaking, and of his merit in the execution of it.

It is well known that Mr. Cumberland's success as a dramatist, especially the fame which he acquired by "The West Indian," introduced him to the society of Johnson, Burke, Goldsmith, Reynolds, &c. and other wits of the last age. When Mr. M. arrives at this period of his hero's life, he enters into an eulogy on Dr. Johnson's style, which is very natural for one who certainly strives to copy it. He says:

'It has been the fashion, I know, to decry, in particular, the style of his Ramblers; but repeated perusals of that work have convinced me that though a uniformity in the construction of its sentences may sometimes prevail, yet it exhibits a continued and unbroken splendour of composition which no other work in the English language can produce in the same degree. That concentrated energy which belongs to it, that vigorous application of terms not then familiarised to the public ear, but most expressive and most desirable, and that sedulous rejection of expletives from which none of the writings of his predecessors were free, together with the melodious collocation of the sentences, present a dazzling accumulation of excellencies which have outlived, and will continue to outlive, every attempt to obscure them, descending to posterity with increased and

increasing

increasing lustre. I am not insensible to the few blemishes which may be justly said to pollute this perfection; but they are so trivial, and are so nobly redeemed by the greatness of surrounding beauties, that I could never pause to dwell upon them, nor will I now stop to specify them. I am aware that the latter productions of Johnson advance a step, and but a small step, beyond this excellence; and that advance arises solely from his having, towards the close of his career, disencumbered his style from the few spots that disfigured it, and presented what may be pronounced a pure and perfect model of writing.'

On the living as well as on the dead, this critic lavishes his strictures. Poor Miss Seward is handled rather roughly in a long note; and Mr. Walter Scott will perhaps think that Mr. M.'s appreciation of his merit will be of no service to his fame.

Many other persons and subjects will be found in this miscellaneous work, which the reader little expects. *Inter alia*, here are anecdotes of Lord Rodney, and a full account of that important improvement in Naval Tactics by which we have obtained very signal victories, viz. *breaking the enemy's line;* an idea which, it is well known, was first suggested by Mr. Clerk in his Essay on Naval Tactics, in 1782, and first practised by the Admiral just mentioned.

When Mr. Cumberland returned from his Spanish mission, and found the surmise of Count Florida Blanca verified, by our ministry refusing to refund his expences, which amounted to 4500l., he was thrown into great difficulties, and obliged to sell his estate and retire from the capital. In this emergency, he chose Tunbridge Wells for the place of his residence, and sought refuge from the world in his library. In the poem, called *Retrospection*, which he published not long before his death, he alludes to these circumstances:

'"Hail to thee, Tunbridge! Hail, Hygeian fount;
Still as thy waters flow, may they dispense
Health to the sick and comfort to the sad!
Sad I came to thee, comfortless and sick
Of many sorrows: still th' envenom'd shaft
Of base injustice rankl'd in my breast;
Still on my haggard cheek the fever hung—
'My only recompense'—Thirty long years
Have blanch'd my temples since I first was taught
The painful truth, that I but mock'd my hopes,
And fool'd my senses, whilst I went astray
To palaces and courts to search for that,
Which dwells not in them.—No: to you, my books!
To you, the dear companions of my youth,
Still my best comforters, I turn'd for peace:
To you at morning break I came, with you

Again

Again I commun'd o'er the midnight lamp,
And haply rescu'd from the abyss of time
Some precious relics of the Grecian muse,
Which else had perish'd: These were pleasing toils,
For these some learned men, who knew how deep
I delv'd to fetch them up, have giv'n me praise,
And I am largely paid; of this no court,
No craft can rob me, and I boldly trust
The treasure will not perish at my death."'

An opportunity so fairly presented, of commenting on the advantages of literary pursuits, is not lost on Mr. M., who continues the subject in prose, offering remarks which are at once pertinent and well expressed:

'One part of the preceding extract (that where he commemorates the many hours of unalloyed happiness which he derived from his books), will be read by every literary man with a pleasing consciousness of its truth. How few reflections upon the employment of time, indeed, can equal those which a scholar feels when he retraces in his imagination the hours he has devoted to voluntary and secluded study! The remembrance of past actions, on which virtue has fixed her approving stamp, may equal, but certainly cannot surpass them. In a mind tinctured with the love of knowledge, every pleasing idea is associated, as it contemplates those moments of placid enjoyment when instruction was silently insinuating itself, and when every day opened new stores of intellectual wealth which the eager pupil of wisdom panted to possess. Inanimate objects become connected with our progress, and we remember, with delight, the shady walk, the silent grove, or the beauteous landscape, where we first opened some favourite volume, or first dwelt upon some matchless effusion of the muse still cherished by the memory. These are emotions familiar to the bosom of every student, and they are such as ever come with welcome, for they revive the recollection of a period which is endeared to him by the most pleasing images of past felicity. Our advancement in knowledge, or our completion of what we wish to know, is attended by few of those gay and inspiriting sensations which accompany our initiation, when all before us is new and untried, and hope promises, with flattering delusion, all that we wish, and more than we find.

'Books are companions which accommodate themselves, with unreproaching willingness, to all our humours. If we are jocund, or if we are sad, if we are studious to learn, or desirous only to be amused, he that has a relish for reading, will find the ready means of supplying all his intellectual wants in the silence of his library. They are friends whom no estimation can overvalue; they are always at our call, and ready to offer their aid and consolation; nor need we overstrain our desires by courtesy, for the moment they cease to be welcome we may dismiss them from our society without fear of reproach or offence. Of what other friends can we say as much?'

Having

Having been led, in the course of this critical narrative, to notice the appearance of Cumberland's comedy of the *Walloons*, in 1782, in which the character of *Father Sullivan* was written for Henderson, Mr. Mudford takes occasion to reprobate the practice current among dramatic writers, of drawing characters for particular actors. In the succeeding chapter, he speaks, and properly, with greater displeasure of a hint thrown out in one of the papers of Mr. C.'s *Observer*, viz. that "the right of publishing parliamentary debates is replete with mischief." Mr. M. combats this idea with the boldness of a true constitutionalist:

'In my opinion, whenever the day comes that the British legislature deliberates with closed doors, that day will be the signal for the extinction of British liberty. The great moral engine of public opinion, that tribunal to which every public man should be amenable, will be destroyed, and on its ruins will be erected a mysterious tyranny which will bow down the necks of my countrymen to the dust, without, perhaps, perpetrating any overt act of despotism, flagrant enough to rouse them to resistance. The most dangerous, indeed, of all attacks on freedom, are those which imperceptibly sap its foundations; where nothing is seen to fall till the last support is silently undermined, and the whole fabric rushes to instantaneous destruction.'

Of all Mr. C.'s publications, *the Observer* has been and will perhaps continue to be most read and approved. We therefore select some parts of Mr. Mudford's criticisms on that work, as interesting exemplifications of his reviewing powers:

'Johnson produced his Ramblers with very little assistance from contemporary wits; but Cumberland wrote his Observer without any. The different powers of the two writers, however, may be easily ascertained from a very slight inspection of their topics. Johnson drew solely from the stores of his own mind. His imagination quickened into perpetual growth objects of discussion; he seized upon an ordinary subject, and by the energy of his language, the richness of his fancy, the fertility of his allusions, and, above all, by the deep insight into human nature which he possessed, he so decorated and enforced it, that had novelty lent her aid, she could scarcely have added another attraction. He derived little help from books, and seldom extended his essays by quotation. They were short also, and it did not often happen that the topic was pursued through successive numbers, for the quickness of his invention was such that he seldom needed to protract a disquisition by a languid iteration of ideas. His Rambler consists of two hundred and eight papers, and he discharges all the favours he received by the acknowledgement of six out of this number.

'Cumberland's Observer contains as great, if not a greater, quantity of matter, and it comprises only one hundred and fifty-two papers. Of these more than one third is compiled from other books. They consist of critical researches into ancient writers, accompanied with

copious

copious extracts; of brief accounts of philosophers and poets derived from sources familiar to the learned; and of historical relations which require little other labour than that of writing down the facts retained in the memory. Those papers which are original are expanded into unusual copiousness, and are sometimes pursued through several successive essays. They were written too at distant intervals of time, while Johnson's were produced by the necessity of stated and periodical labour within the space of two years.

'From this comparison, (honourable indeed to Cumberland, for with him alone can it be made, all our other essayists having been associated together in their respective labours,) two conclusions may be inferred; one, that Johnson possessed an extraordinary rapidity of conception, accompanied with a rapidity of execution as extraordinary: the other, that Cumberland, though he had, perhaps, no less rapidity of execution than Johnson, was far beneath him in that intellectual fruitfulness by which topics are not only elicited but afterwards pursued, and embellished with all the brightest ornaments of fancy, or enforced with all the weightiest arguments of reason.

'The most conspicuous part of these papers, and that which Cumberland seems to have regarded as his happiest effort, is the inquiry instituted into the history of the Greek writers, particularly of the comic poets now lost. "I am vain enough," says he, "to believe no such collection of the scattered extracts, anecdotes, and remains of those dramatists is any where else to be found;" and in another part of his Memoirs, he quotes, with manifest exultation, the following panegyric from the pen of Mr. Walpole, of Trinity College, Cambridge.

"*Aliunde quoque haud exiguum ornamentum huic volumini accessit, siquidem Cumberlandius nostras amicè benevolèque permisit, ut versiones suas quorundam fragmentorum, exquisitas sane illas, miràque elegantiâ conditas et commendatas huc transferrem.*"

'In writing these erudite papers, he was greatly assisted by the marginal annotations upon the authors by his grandfather Bentley, some of whose books he received from his uncle, (Dr. Richard Bentley,) and among them many of the writers whose works he afterwards illustrated in the Observer. That these essays, indeed, deserve every praise which so much diligence, learning, and skilful criticism can obtain, I will not deny; but they will oftener be commended than read.

'It is deemed unlucky to stumble on the threshold, but Cumberland has done so. I do not believe, indeed, that it would be possible to produce, from any writer of the last century, a paragraph so feebly involved as that with which the first number of the Observer commences. The reader wanders through it as in a maze; he finds himself at the end, at last, but wonders how he came there; he attempts to look back and disentangle the path he pursued, and beholds only inextricable confusion. I know nothing that resembles this initial paragraph, except it be some of the prolixly concatenated sentences of Gauden; but his involutions are amply redeemed by a richness of imagination which scatters the brightest flowers over the palpable confusion.

'The

'The purport of his undertaking was, as he informs us, "to tell his readers what he had observed of men and books in the most amusing manner he was able." This, indeed, was an unambitious claim, and to which I think he established a sufficient right in the progress of his labours.'—

'If the Observer be considered as a body of Essays, upon life, upon manners, and upon literature, it will shrink in comparison with those produced by Steele, by Addison, and by Johnson. Cumberland was capable of imagining characters; but he does not seem to have had much power of observing those qualities in individuals of which character is compounded. That which was obtrusively visible in a man, he could seize and pourtray; but the less obvious modes of thought, the secret bias, the prevailing but obscure motives to conduct, were seldom within his reach. He could invent, and give the invention an air of reality: upon a slender basis of truth he could engraft an agreeable fiction, in which, however, the traces of fancy would still be so discernible that the reader never mistook them.

'In this respect, therefore, he was greatly inferior to either Steele, Addison, or Johnson. They had a quick perception of the follies of mankind, and exhibited, without exaggeration, such a picture of them as none could mistake, and none could view without conviction of its truth. They looked abroad upon life, and observed all its various combinations: they studied man, and knew the artifices by which his conduct was obscured. They penetrated through that veil which necessity sometimes, and custom always, impels us to throw round our actions, and they disclosed those hidden qualities which escape the notice of ordinary observation, but which are recognised with instantaneous acquiescence when displayed.

'The want of this power in Cumberland is greatly felt by him who reads his essays consecutively; for, being restricted in the limits of his excursions, by inability to avail himself of what wider research would have offered, he is too diffuse upon single incidents and characters, as a man who has not many guineas applies one to its utmost variety of purposes.

'In his literary disquisitions, though always inferior to Johnson as a critic, he is often very pleasing and often equal to Addison. His learning, perhaps, sometimes degenerates into pedantry, but he who is rich is apt to display his wealth. His critical papers are among the most amusing, and he has instituted an ingenious comparison between Massinger's Fatal Dowry and Rowe's Fair Penitent, in which the brief opinions of Mr. M. Mason (Massinger's editor) are enforced by examples pertinently selected. I wish, however, that his admiration of Cowper had not excited him to an imitation of that nervous and original writer.

'In his characters he sometimes exhibited living individuals. I have already alluded to his introduction of Johnson; and in the same number, I imagine his actress to be Mrs. Siddons. Gorgon, the self-conceited painter of the deformed and terrible, (No. 98.) was probably meant for Fuseli: but if so, there is more willingness to wound than power.

'There is nothing in these papers by which the most delicate reader can be displeased, which is a praise that cannot be wholly given either to the Spectator or Guardian, whose zeal to reform certain exposures of the female person often led them to illustrations not exactly within the limits of decency. This commendation I bestow the more willingly upon Cumberland, because the practice of such decorum was not habitual in him, for in some of his writings he only needed to employ a corresponding licentiousness of expression to rank with the corrupters of public morals.'

We shall not quote this writer's strictures on the Society for the Suppression of Vice, at p. 450. *et seq.*: but we recommend them to the consideration of its zealous members.

A large portion of these pages is dedicated to the drama; and the author will not be said to have gone out of his way by animadverting on the extreme folly of the town in its idolatry of the talents of Master Betty. At the zenith of his popularity, we endeavoured to correct this mania, by suggesting the impossibility of those perfections which the public voice attributed to that youth, and has itself since refused to recognize.

Of the novels of his hero, Mr. M. speaks in terms of moral disapprobation; and of his scheme to establish a Review, with no applause. The following is his short account of Mr. C.'s death and character:

'Cumberland's death was not preceded by any tedious or painful illness. The uniform temperance of his life was such that he might justly hope a calm and gentle dismission to another state; that euthanasia for which Arbuthnot so tenderly sighed, for which every man must devoutly wish, and which, indeed, as I have heard, was vouchsafed to Cumberland. He was indisposed only a few days previously, and quietly resigned his soul to its Maker, at the house of his friend, Mr. Henry Fry, in Bedford Place, Russell Square, a gentleman whom he mentions with great kindness in his Memoirs. This melancholy event took place on the 7th of May, 1811.

'When his death was known, it excited a very general sensation in the literary world. He had, indeed, lived through so long a period, had written so much, had acquired so general a reputation as an elegant scholar and author, and had been connected so intimately with the most eminent men of the last half century, that his loss seemed to dissever from us the only remaining link of that illustrious circle by which the individuals who composed it were still held to us.

'He was buried in Westminster Abbey on the 14th of May. His remains were interred in Poet's Corner, near the shrine of his friend Garrick. The funeral was attended by a numerous procession, which reached the abbey about one o'clock, where they were met by Dr. Vincent, Dean of Westminster, the long-remembered friend and early school-fellow of Cumberland. His office must, therefore, have been an affecting one. When the body was placed in the grave, he

pronounced

pronounced the following oration, for a correct copy of which I am indebted to the kindness of his daughter, Mrs. Jansen.

'"Good People: we have committed to the dust the body of Richard Cumberland, a man well entitled, by his virtues and his talents, to repose among the illustrious dead by which, in this place, he is surrounded. No author has written more; few have written better. His talents were chiefly devoted to the stage: his dramas were pure and classical, the characters drawn from high life as well as low life, but all invariably dealt with according to the strict rules of poetical justice; and we may say of him, what we can say of few dramatists, that his plays were not contaminated by oaths or libidinous allusions, such as have disgraced the stage in all ages of the drama, and greatly, nay abominably, so at the present day. He was of opinion that the theatre was not merely a place of amusement, but a school of manners. In his prose works he was a moralist of the highest order. In his two great poems, drawn from holy writ, he well sustained the dignified character of our sacred religion, approved himself a worthy teacher of gospel morality, and a faithful servant of his blessed Redeemer. He was not exempt from the failings and infirmities of human nature; but let us remember, that his talents were never prostituted to the cause of vice or immorality; let us contemplate his long and useful labours in the service of God and his country; and may the God of all mercy pardon his sins, and in the resurrection of the just receive him into everlasting peace and glory!"'

To the correctness of this character given of the deceased by Dr. Vincent, Mr. M. demurs, denying him the praise of a strictly moral writer, and refusing to allow that his plays are free from *oaths*: but the passages which are adduced in Mr. M.'s first edition, and suppressed in the second, are not quite in point, if by oaths we mean impious appeals to the Divine Being. The practice, too common in the present day, of profane execration or cursing, is indeed exemplified in Cumberland's dramas.

Throughout this work, Mr. M. has aimed at producing a nervous composition, and on the whole he has succeeded: but, as he is a *martinet* in style, we were surprized to meet in p. 469. with the following language: 'he affords too many glimpses in the progress of the action, *of how* it is to terminate;' and in p. 451. the sentence is not much better, in which he speaks of 'negligences which he had already animadverted *on in* examining the *West Indian*.' He has written on Cumberland's works more than was necessary: but he has in general written well, and in the spirit of sound criticism.

ART. VI. *The Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy*, Vol. XI. 4to. 1l. 4s. Boards. Printed at Dublin; and sold in London by Murray.

UNAVOIDABLE circumstances have obliged us unusually to delay our report of this volume: but we cannot omit to record its extensive contents, and we shall proceed immediately to discharge that duty. Its papers are divided, as usual, under the three classes of SCIENCE, POLITE LITERATURE, and ANTIQUITIES. — We commence with the first.

An Account of some Chalybeate Preparations in the Pharmacopæia Regis et Reginæ in Hibernia. By Robert Perceval, M.D., Professor of chemistry in the University of Dublin. — The object of this paper is to give an account of some experiments that were performed on the chalybeate preparations of the Dublin Pharmacopæia, in order that they might be rendered more uniform and permanent. The observations are of some practical importance, and the directions that are subjoined appear to be judicious. They principally refer to the *Tinctura acetatis ferri*, a medicine which is formed by 'extracting a tincture from a mixture of equal weights of acetate of kali and sulphate of iron.'

A Description of a New Anemometer. By Richard Kirwan, Esq., P.R.I.A., &c. — The author here commences by some remarks on the connection between the winds and the general condition of the weather; and he observes that, if we were in possession of an easy method of estimating the force of the winds, we might expect to make a considerable advance towards a true hypothesis respecting their causes. His anemometer is simple in its construction, and appears not ill adapted for the object. Its principal action consists in the horizontal motion of a square frame, which motion will be greater or less according to the force of the wind; and which, by raising a certain number of weights, becomes an indication of the strength with which the wind is blowing.

On Bilious Cholic and Convulsions in early Infancy. By Joseph Clarke, M.D., honorary fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Dublin, &c. — The object of Dr. Clarke's paper is to recommend purgative medicines for the diseases mentioned in the title, which he does from a very extensive and decided experience of their efficacy. His practice generally consists in the alternation of calomel and castor-oil. He observes, 'every practitioner who has been in the habit of employing mixtures of rhubarb and magnesia, solutions of manna in fennel water, egg-shells, musk, volatile alkali, opium, and blisters, the remedies formerly in use, can be at no loss to form

an opinion of the proportion of convulsive cases in early infancy, which recovered under such treatment.'

Synoptical Views of the State of the Weather at Dublin, in the Years, 1805, 6, 7, and 8. By R. Kirwan, Esq., P.R.I.A., &c. —The scientific world is well acquainted with the assiduity of this venerable philosopher, in the cultivation of the study of meteorology. With much regret do we reflect that this is the last record of his attachment to his favorite pursuit. Few individuals have done more to promote the interests of science, and have lived and died more respected, than Mr. Kirwan.

Memoir on useful Grasses. By W. Richardson, D.D. — Of the 18,000 subjects of the vegetable kingdom that have been hitherto discovered, about 150 belong to the family of Grasses: but of these scarcely a tenth or a twelfth part merits the notice of the agriculturist. Dr. Richardson, in his recommendation of certain grasses as peculiarly worthy of cultivation, proceeds on the ground of long experience, and of a careful study of their *qualities*, *habits*, and *uses*; he having allotted distinct plots of ground to each grass, and duly observed their respective growth and characteristic properties. Of the precise place which each of the gramina, here enumerated, ought to occupy in a scale of comparative utility, different opinions will be formed; and these opinions will in some measure depend on the soil and situation in which certain grasses are found: but the preferences given by Dr. R. are supported by such reasons as are calculated to have weight with the practical farmer, and his report is therefore worthy of publication. His classification is as follows. 1st. *Agrostis stolonifera*, or *Irish Fiorin*. This grass was stigmatized by Mr. Arthur Young with the opprobrious name of *Red Robin*, and said by him to be of so very inferior a nature, that "all kinds of cattle would rather starve than touch its herbage;" yet, in spite of this condemnation, it is here placed by Dr. R. in the foremost rank, on account of '*the decided preference given to it by his horses, sheep, and cows, whether green or in hay, above all other grasses.*' The cattle of the English and of the Irish farmer differ extremely in their evidence. Perhaps the reason of the dissonance is that *Fiorin* may suit the soil and climate of one island better than those of the other. — 2. *Dactylis glomerata*, or *Cocks-foot*: for earliness, quantity of produce, and power of reproduction, this plant obtains the highest recommendation. It is the most luxuriant of our grasses. — 3. *Festuca pratensis*, or *Meadow fescue*. This grass is three weeks later than the *Dactylis*: but it resembles its luxuriance, and takes strong hold of the ground. —4. *Alopecurus pratensis*, or *Fox-tail*. This grass has sunken in Dr. R.'s good opinion. For purposes of grazing, he still thinks that it is

equal or superior to any other: but, after attentive observation of its sward, he pronounces it to be unfit for *hay*. — 5. *Lolium perenne*, or *Rye-grass*, which is stated to be unprofitable for pasture, but to compensate for its thinness by the superior quality of its hay. — 6. *Holcus lanatus*, *Meadow soft Grass*, or *White Grass*. Dr. R. speaks more favourably of this grass than some agriculturists have done. In his experimental plots it may appear to advantage; but, in fields that are grazed, it is left by the cattle for sweeter grasses, and, by rising in tussocks or tufts, it produces an unsightly appearance. — 7. *Poa pratensis*, or *Smooth-stalked Meadow Grass*. This is said to be universally approved. — 8. *Avena flavescens*, or *Yellow Oat-grass*, was formerly praised by Dr. R., but now neither the *Poa pratensis* nor the *Avena flavescens* is recommended to the farmer, because neither will hold long possession of the ground. — 9. *Phleum pratense*, *Cat's-tail Grass*, or *Timothy Grass*, on account of its lateness and total want of after-grass, merits no notice from us, however valuable it may be in America. — 10. *Bromus mollis*, or *Goose-grass*, though an *annual*, gives a very early and luxuriant crop of hay. — 11. *Festuca fluitans*, *Float fescue*, *Drain-grass*, or *Honey-grass*. Of this produce, cows and horses are remarkably fond: but it cannot be made into hay. — 12. *Festuca ovina*, or *sheep fescue*, a grass, according to Dr. R., fit for sheep only; but he confesses that his experiments on this species have been curtailed. Here ends his catalogue of useful grasses. In his proscribed list, he places not only *Poa trivialis*, or *Rough-stalked Meadow Grass*, *Cynosurus cristatus*, or *Crested Dog's-tail*, and *Poa annua*, or *Dwarf Poa*, but the highly praised *Anthoxanthum odoratum*, or *Sweet-scented Meadow-grass*, which is supposed, though erroneously, to give fragrance to our newly cut hay; but, observes Dr. R., neither its sweetness nor the early appearance of its panicle compensates for the miserable thinness of its crop, the want of luxuriance in its blade, and its total deficiency in after-grass.

In the subsequent remarks, the author notices the defect in our natural meadows arising from the different seasons in which the grasses arrive at perfection; and he recommends certain mixtures of seed, in laying down meadows, to remedy this evil: but we shall not give his recipes, since here he deals in mere speculation.

To the papers on Mathematics and Astronomy, which occur under the class of *Science*, we shall pay attention in a separate article in our next Number. — Only one essay is given in

POLITE LITERATURE:

but it is of considerable interest and extent, occupying 188 pages. It is intitled *Of Happiness*. By (the late) Richard

Kirwan, Esq., LL.D., P.R.I.A., F.R.S., &c. — From such ethical discussions as that which is here presented to us, the most useful instruction may be drawn. The poet has observed that "the proper study of mankind is man;" and to this remark it may be added that a certain portion of self-knowlege is necessary for the avoidance of evil, and for the possession of a moderate share of happiness or well-being. That philosophy, which makes human nature the field or theatre of its inquiries, will open to us discoveries which intimately concern us, will enable us nicely to discriminate in points of some moment to our welfare, and will prepare us to act our part in life with comfort and reputation. We must lament, therefore, that this species of science is not more in vogue. If such writers as Dr. Cogan and Mr. Kirwan were more studied, and their descriptions duly weighed, the state of mankind, even in the most civilized nations, would be much improved.

The essay *on Happiness* is divided into two parts, and each into many subordinate chapters and sections. After some preliminary definitions of Happiness and Pleasure, Misery and Pain, the author observes that, on every view of the subject, the happiness which is attainable in this life must be of the *mixed kind*. To ascertain this point with some precision, he first considers our capacities for receiving pleasure or pain, and next examines the condition of man in the various forms of society: the first branch including an inquiry into the constitution of the human system, and the second embracing a history of mankind in his savage and his civilized state. Before he proceeds to determine the important questions relative to the preference which should be given to the civilized over the savage state, or to the supposed equality in the distribution of happiness among the different classes of society, he enters on a minute analysis of the capabilities of man as a recipient or instrument in the construction of pleasure and pain, as far as they relate to himself. Under the head of corporeal pleasures and pains, Mr. K. notices the five senses; to which, as a distinct source of pleasure, he adds what he calls *Affectibility*; and also two *internal* senses, one placed in the *stomach*, which 'imparts pleasure on receiving food of which it had long suffered the privation, the other in the *fauces* which imparts pleasure when relieved from thirst.' We think, however, that no reason exists for increasing the number of the senses. As to *Affectibility*, this appears to us to be nothing more than a name expressive of our capacity of receiving impressions. It is the general property of a sentient being, but cannot be said to constitute a distinct source of pleasure. With regard to Mr. K.'s internal senses, they are both resolvable into the sense of Taste. He gives the following

account of what he terms a new discovery in the science of mind:

'By affectibility, I understand that capacity, or passive property of the mind that renders it susceptible of pleasures and pains, distinct and different from those inherent in the perceptions of the senses, memory, imagination, understanding, or moral sense, though constantly preceding or following each of them.

'Thus, suppose a man pinched with hunger, to have food set before him; he is rejoiced. This joy is a pleasure surely distinct and different from the satisfaction of his appetite, or the taste of his food.

'Again, suppose his food suddenly snatched from him, he is vexed, and this vexation is a pain very different from that of hunger, or unsatiated appetite.'

These two cases, however, belong to the mental operations of expectation (or anticipation) and disappointment, rather than to the general principle of Affectibility.

The agreeable and disagreeable sensations that affect the whole frame may, for the most part, be referred to Feeling.

Our mental pleasures and pains are represented as proceeding from *memory*, *imagination*, *understanding*, *will*, the *moral sense*, and the above-mentioned *affectibility*. Here the limited province of the *imagination* is pointed out. From the late Dr. Barnes of Manchester, this definition is given of it: "*Imagination* is the power of varying the order and species of ideas of sensations originally received either by the *eye* or the *ear*." To prove that the imagination is thus restricted in its exercise, Mr. K. adds:

'I may have a mental representation of the house I live in, mount its stair and view its apartments; I may also mentally repeat the sounds of a song I heard, admired and learned; but to imagine the taste of the several dishes that form a mental repast, exceeds any power I possess. So I know well what a tooth-ache is, and also what hunger and thirst are; but I cannot represent these pains, and consequently can form no idea of them according to the exact sense of this word.'

Affectibility may properly stand as a head-title to the chapter on *Emotions*, both of the pleasing and the displeasing kind; but, as we have already observed, it does not constitute a distinct emotion, any more than sensation forms a distinct sense. Among the descriptions or definitions of the various unpleasant emotions, a nice discrimination is made between Remorse and Repentance, which are often confounded:

'*Remorse* is the painful emotion which follows the judgment of self-condemnation for the commission of any immoral act or criminal neglect.' — '*Repentance* is remorse acknowledged by the sufferer to be just, and therefore accompanied with regret, dislike, detestation, or horror of the delinquency that occasions it, in proportion to its criminality or atrocity; a firm resolution of abandoning it,

it in future, and an ardent desire of forgiveness by the person offended, particularly the Supreme Being; and of repairing, if possible, the wrong or injury committed.'

Sympathy, *expectation*, *surprise*, and *wonder*, are classed as indeterminate emotions, and are well defined. A long section is appropriated to the subject of *Desires*, in which the appetites and affections of human nature are fully considered; and to this succeeds a section on *Sentiments*, which are defined to be 'impressions that arise in the mind, in consequence of the favourable or unfavourable opinion it entertains of its own merit or demerit, or of that of others.—They differ from *emotions*, as these arise from facts or events; and not from opinion;—and from *desires*, which excite to action, which sentiments merely as such do not.' Of pleasing sentiments a full enumeration is presented, as well as of the displeasing and painful. From the definitions of the former, we extract one which is extremely neat and correct:

'Friendship is a pleasing sentiment of affectionate attachment betwixt different individuals. It is not grounded on any instinct, but solely on the pleasing qualities of its object; similarity in such inclinations and pursuits as are not necessarily exclusive; participation of common dangers, and agreeable social intercourse.

'It is strengthened by duration, and benefits mutually conferred. Hence it was much stronger in ancient times, when sufficient protection could not be obtained from the laws. It commonly exists betwixt persons of the same sex, but oftener betwixt men than betwixt women. With respect to persons of different sexes conjugally united, it is essential to their mutual happiness, and in proportion to the sensibility of either, the want of it is productive of misery. It may also exist betwixt persons of different sexes not conjugally united, if both are advanced in age, or at least if one far surpasses the other in that respect; but if both are young, it gradually, and perhaps imperceptibly, passes into love.'

Having in the first part of his essay enumerated all the pleasurable and all the painful perceptions of which the human mind is capable, and accomplished the still more important task (aided by that luminous moral philosopher, Dr. Cogan,) of assigning precise definitions of the terms by which they are denoted, Mr. Kirwan proceeds, in the second part, to take an extensive survey of the different states of mankind, in every age, and in every quarter of the world; for the purpose of ascertaining, by facts, 'which of the opposite perceptions, the pleasing or the painful, do at present predominate, or have at any past period, as far as can be known, always predominated during the whole course of human existence.'

The four states examined are the *Patriarchal*, the *Barbarian*, the *Savage*, and the *Civilized*: but, as Mr. K. traverses the whole of

of antient and modern history, he cannot be supposed to take any other than a superficial glance at the condition of the human race, in the several states and under the various governments which he professes to review. Under the patriarchal system; under the governments of Egypt, Lacedemon, Athens, and Rome; under the barbarian governments of Europe; under the Russian, Hindoo, Turkish, and Persian governments; he finds little which contributes to promote human happiness: but, whatever defects these governments appear to have in the estimation of a philosopher, the mass of the people under them contrive their own enjoyment; and it is proper to consider that much depends on the power of habit, and that the logical distinction between negation and privation applies to those states in which both climate and bad government seem to conspire in promoting absolute misery. Man feels not the want of comforts of which he is entirely unconscious. He is not, indeed, so happy without these comforts as he would be with them, but his ignorance of their existence makes him insensible to the want of them. This remark applies more particularly to the savage state, the various tribes of which fall under this philosopher's notice. Sections are employed in accounts of Asiatic savages, viz. the Alouetians, Kamptschatdales, Kosiacks, Tchouktchi, Samoiedes, and Toungousi, and disgusting is the picture which they present; yet it is remarked of one tribe in particular, (the Samoiedes,) that, 'miserable as their condition is, they prefer it to all the conveniencies of civilized life, which some of them saw at Moscow.' The same has been observed of the savages in New South Wales; who will walk through the streets of Port Jackson, but prefer their native woods to the civilized state of our settlers. To the above account is added a view of the American, African, and European savages; and, though instances sometimes occur of preferences in favour of the savage-state, Mr. K. concludes,

'From this survey of the principal circumstances of savage life, under every climate of the habitable globe, I apprehend it is sufficiently apparent, that it is far indeed from being productive even of that approximation to happiness which mankind is capable of attaining. To such mental pleasures as are referable to intellect, memory, or imagination, savages have no pretence. And as those sources of pleasure are unproductive of pain, here is one great deficit in the scale of happiness without any counterpoise of pain. With respect to the pleasures and pains resulting from affectibility, they feel no pleasing emotions but the expectation of meeting their prey, and joy on obtaining it; but daily experience vexation from the miseries they endure, and rage and indignation at supposed affronts from their brethren. As to desires, they are insensible to any but such as are purely instinctive, most of them court distinction, either by their riches,

riches, when they possess any, or skill in hunting, or valour in war; but as it is impossible that all should obtain distinction, each village is filled with distrust, jealousy, and secret ambushes. They are universally devoid of gratitude; their chief amusement is dancing, accompanied with drums and singing. But the passion whose gratification yields them the highest pleasure is that of revenge; on exposing their enemies to the most excruciating tortures, they feel a cool and premeditated delight; and it must be owned, that from the same stern, obdurate, and inflexible frame of mind, they bear the torments inflicted on them by their enemies with a ferocious, insulting firmness and patience, which some call fortitude. With the pleasures of sympathy they are totally unacquainted, and the pains of others, not even their enemies, are to them mere matter of sport.'

This appreciation of the restricted happiness of man in the savage state is followed by a particular reply to all the positions of Rousseau, in which the preference of the savage to the civilized state is maintained. The general answer to Rousseau's whimsical hypothesis is an appeal to the fact that the primeval savages have by degrees adopted a civilized state.

We need not follow Mr. K. through his chapter on what are termed the Barbarian Governments of America, and on what are called the Anomalous States, viz. the antient Germans and the Otaheiteans; we shall therefore hasten to his view of the condition of mankind in the civilized state, of which the following neat definition is given: 'The civilized state is that in which different families are associated for the protection of their natural rights, namely, life, liberty, property, and safety, together with such advantages, as may be gained by the united power of the society.' That high degree of civilization, which the greater part of Europe has already attained, Mr. K. justly attributes *chiefly* to the benign effect of Christianity, and in a subordinate degree to the influence of chivalry and philosophy; yet the triumphs of revelation and science are as yet far from being complete in this respect:

'It must be confessed, however, that most European countries are, as yet, but imperfectly civilized; in most of them an absolute unlimited authority is at present, and has been for some ages, vested in a single person whose power is supported by a numerous disciplined army; hence it is frequently abused, and those rights for the preservation of which men originally associated, are frequently grossly violated, by arbitrary imprisonments, heavy, unequal, and unnecessary impositions, severe restraints on the communication of knowledge, and in many by punishment, even unto death, of those who adopt speculative religious opinions different from those authorised by the state. Those guilty of this atrocity cannot surely reproach the Mexicans with their execrable human sacrifices.'

After this reflection on the imperfect civilization of European states, Mr. K. takes a home-view; and, with a compliment to the

the government under which we live, as approaching most to perfect civilization, he introduces 'an examination of the degree of happiness enjoyed, or that may be enjoyed, under it.' Taking it as an assumed principle that 'the essential rights of men are so secured to them by the united powers of society at large, that they have leisure and opportunity of pursuing that course of life proportioned to their abilities which seems most productive of pleasure and least exposed to pain;' and having arranged the individuals of the civilized state under the four divisions of *Opulent*, *Rich*, *Poor*, and *Indigent* *, defining also what he means by *necessaries*, *comforts*, and *luxuries*; he proceeds to inquire into the degree of happiness which may be expected in each of the above-mentioned classes: but he no more believes that happiness is equally distributed through them all, than that vessels of different capacity will when full contain the same portion of fluid. He ably contests this point with Dr. Paley, who maintained that the pleasures of superiority and ambition are common to all conditions; and that the farrier who excels in his trade feels "the delight of *distinction* as truly and substantially, as the statesman, the soldier, and the scholar, who have filled all Europe with the reputation of their wisdom, their valour, or their knowlege." To this representation, the present essayist replies:

'Here the Doctor confounds the pleasure of *ambition*, which consists in the desire of power, with that of *distinction*, which denotes the desire of attracting attention; and to this latter his examples apply. What he means by *substantially*, as distinct from *truly*, I do not understand; but is it possible that he should confound the *simple* pleasure of the farrier, arising from the trifling regard of his few neighbours, with the *complex* multifarious pleasure of the statesman who has promoted the prosperity of his country, of the soldier who has valiantly defended it, or of the philosopher who is honoured and respected by all Europe for his scientific discoveries and improvements? Can he compare the glory of Newton, of Lavoisier, of Franklin, of Adam Smith, with the puny satisfaction of an obscure farrier?'

If happiness consists in the multiplicity of agreeable consciousnesses, then the farrier and the philosopher cannot be considered as on a par respecting intellectual enjoyment. In connection with this subject, Mr. K. is induced, as a man of science speaking from experience, to advert to the pleasures resulting from philosophical pursuits to persons of competent fortunes; observing that 'pursuits of this kind are best calculated to produce happiness, and are least exposed to adventitious pains.' With these pleasures arising from the exercise

* To which he afterward adds a fifth class, viz. the *Philosophic* and the *Literary*.

of the *understanding*, he ranks those of the *moral sense*, and of the *imagination*, including the departments of poetry, painting, and music; and, in order to secure the continuance of these intellectual and mental pleasures, he kindly states the circumstances which must concur to produce them in any perfection:

'1st, *Health*, which is indeed the substratum of any sort of happiness, and consequently moderate exercise, as without it health cannot be long maintained. 2dly, *Patience*, and a placid temper, which is absolutely requisite in philosophic pursuits. 3dly, *Society* of persons engaged in the same pursuits, and a correspondence with the most eminent in our own or in foreign countries. 4thly, *Relaxation* from continued attention, either by pleasing conversation on other subjects or by theatrical amusements, or by entertaining books, during the perusal of which the mind is almost wholly passive, as accounts of voyages, travels, select novels, &c. Lastly, a prudent stated attention to the sources of competence.

'A mind thus incessantly occupied bids fair for the enjoyment of as much happiness as can be found in the present state of our existence.'

Among the objections which lie against the doctrine maintained in this essay, the most prominent is that of *Maupertuis*, who asserts that 'the *evils* of every condition far surpass its pleasures,' and maintains, in proof of this declaration, 'that few would consent to renew precisely the same course of life through which they had already passed.' Mr. K. is of a different opinion. 'I believe,' says he, 'that *many* in the situations above mentioned, as most productive of happiness, and *many* in the middle classes of society would, with the exception of some immoralities, of which reason and religion forbid the repetition, gladly once more renew the same course of life. At least Virgil was of that opinion, for mentioning those whose sufferings induced them to terminate their lives, he says:

"——— *quam vellent æthere in alto*
Nunc et pauperiem et duros perferre labores!"

To represent the mass of evil in human life as greater than the mass of good is an error which the universal attachment to life refutes. Man is capable of much enjoyment, and he is placed here by his Creator for benevolent purposes: but the degree of happiness to which he attains must depend on his own efforts, assisted by favouring circumstances.

ANTIQUITIES.

Of the Origin of Polytheism, Idolatry, and Grecian Mythology. By Richard Kirwan, Esq., LL.D., P.R.I.A., F.R.S. — In inquiries of this nature, we can arrive at little more than probable conjecture;

jecture; and so vague are the materials on which we speculate, that conjectures which are satisfactory to one writer are rejected with contempt by another. Mr. Kirwan amused himself, probably, by the composition of this essay: but few, perhaps, of his readers will concur with him in all his opinions. If he successfully combats Mr. Hume, in asserting, against the contrary position of that philosopher, that monotheism was the primeval religion of mankind, he will be opposed as maintaining an untenable hypothesis, when he suggests that the corruption of the primitive patriarchal religion arose from the cessation of the manifestation of the Divine Presence in a visible glory, luminous symbol, or Shechinah; and that, in consequence of this cessation, mortals directed their worship to the Sun (in which, according to the LXX version of the 19th Psalm, the Deity had placed his Shechinah,) and to the other heavenly bodies.

It is difficult to say at what period and on what occasion polytheism commenced: but, if the worship of the host of heaven, and afterward of deified mortals, resulted from the disappearance of a luminous symbol of the Divinity to which men had for ages directed their adoration, polytheism was more a venial error than a crime. Little benefit is obtained by endeavouring to reconcile Sanchoniatho with Moses, and mythology with true history. At this distance of time, and with the slender evidence which we possess, it is impossible for Mr. K. positively to pronounce that the Hellenistic Greeks were the last of all civilized nations which embraced polytheism and idolatry; and he has perhaps still less ground for asserting, at p. 36., 'that the introduction of polytheism into Greece must be attributed solely to the Phœnicians.' Egypt rather than Phœnicia was the country in which Grecian fable originated. We smiled when we read at p. 49. that the spot 'on which Paradise stood seems to have been destroyed by a volcano;' and, if Mr. K. were alive, we should ask him whether the Cherubim with their flaming swords mean the eruption of volcanic matter?

A Dissertation upon the Chronology of the Judges of Israel. By Hugh B. Auchinleck, Schol. T.C.D. — This elaborate paper occupies 183 pages, and manifests the learning and patient research of the author: but the point which he has undertaken to settle is of so very difficult a nature, and such various opinions have been entertained by chronologists concerning it, that Mr. A. must not suppose that he has put the question at rest. According to 1 Kings, vi. 1., Solomon began to build his celebrated temple in the year 480, after the Exodus of the children of Israel out of Egypt, (the Septuagint reads 446,) in the fourth year of Solomon's reign. Now the controversy turns on the authenticity

authenticity of the numbers given in this passage; the consistency and agreement of the interval there stated with the several periods deducible from the history of the Judges; and the various fortunes of the Jewish nation, from the time of the departure from Egypt to the commencement of the regal state after their settlement in Canaan. The general opinion has been that the period, assigned in the above-quoted passage in the book of Kings, is too short for the transactions which croud into it, and is not to be reconciled to the chronology of history. Most learned men have, therefore, been induced to believe that some error has crept into the text; and, adopting an enlarged calculus, they have framed various hypotheses, which they have endeavoured to support by calculations. Instead of considering the interval, which elapsed from the Exodus to the commencement of the building of Solomon's temple, to be only 480 years, Petavius would read 520; Vossius and Perizonius, 580; Serrarius, 680; Codoman, 598; Vignols, 683; and Pezron, 873. Josephus and Clemens Alexandrinus state the period to be far greater than that which is given in 1 Kings, vi. 1.; the former at 592, the latter at 567. Notwithstanding, however, the general current of opinion against the authenticity of the passage in the book of Kings, as it stands in the Hebrew, Mr. Auchinleck contends for the correctness of the number of years (480) as there laid down; and for this purpose he not only offers, at great length, his reasons and calculations in defence of his own scheme, but endeavours to point out the defects of the several hypotheses or theories of those who have written in favour of an enlarged period. We cannot possibly follow him through this long and laboured discussion, but must content ourselves with reporting the principle on which he proceeds in analysing the chronology of the Judges of Israel, and presenting our readers with an abstract of the result. Some management is necessary in the conduct of his own theory; and the state of Israel during the period recorded in the book of Judges was in general so unsettled, and often so calamitous, that he is obliged to propose some preliminary rules of interpretation before he details its chronology. He tells us that 'the jurisdiction of the judges is *not always* to be understood as synonimous with the term of the repose,' (p. 101.): that '*repose* signifies an interval between the epochs of warfare and hostility,' (p. 101.); and that 'the first servitudes are to be included in the periods of repose,' (p. 120.) Aware of an objection which will be made to this part of his system, he offers the following reply:

'Is servitude, I am asked, synonimous with repose? Could the land enjoy rest, when it was enslaved? I answer yes: it enjoyed rest from the evils of hostility and war, which is all my principles would

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go to establish. Will it not be granted to me, that the kingdoms of Judah and Israel, when they agreed to purchase off the vengeance of their Assyrian oppressors by tribute, were at peace? Under the Tirshatha or Assyrian satrap, that is, under subjection, was not the land at rest? When Zedekiah paid tribute to Nebuchadnezzar, for some years, the land enjoyed repose; when he refused it, and the country was exposed to the invasions of the enemy, the repose was terminated.'

They who are inclined to controvert the position maintained in this dissertation will not allow these to be cases in point. The servitudes, mentioned in the book of Judges, are described in a manner which will not permit us to think that the Israelites regarded their land as being at rest while they groaned under them, and prayed for deliverance. This writer, however, steady to his hypothesis, maintains that 'it is neither inconsistent nor false to suppose the jurisdiction of the judge, as in some instances contemporaneous with the dominion of a foreign enemy. In a word, the genius of Asiatic conquest, more particularly in the earlier ages, never went to destroy or to alter the form of government, in the subjugated state: it was limited to the imposition of tribute, and personal service, in the nature of a feudal fee, of which singular, or, perhaps, in an uncultivated age, natural policy, it would not be difficult to assign the probable causes, or to accumulate examples.'—Will this statement agree with his assertion at p. 109., that 'the first Judges appear to have been rather leaders to deliver Israel from her *oppressors*, than legislators?'—Mr. A. lays down also another postulate, viz. that 'the death of a chief is a very distinct thing from the commencement or duration of a servitude:' but this position, considering the distracted state of the Israelites, is very questionable. We shall not, however, contest the point with him, nor attempt an analysis of the method by which he establishes the several items in his calculation: but we shall transcribe his own summing up at p. 170., and his short synopsis at p. 173.

'Thus, then, stands my calculus:—The building of the temple commenced in the second month of the fourth year of Solomon, (1 Kings, vi. 1. compared with 2 Chron. iii. 2.) so that there are three years in retrospect to the end of David. David reigned 40 years; Saul and Samuel 40; Eli and Samson 40; Abdon, Elon, and Ibsan, 25; Jepthah, Jair, Tolah, and Abimelech, 54; Gideon 40; 40 years in retrospect to the defeat of Sisera; 80, to the conquest of Moab, after the death of Eglon; 40, from thence to the defeat of Chusan; 8, to the beginning of his domination, which affords an aggregate of 410 years; 70 are necessary to complete the calculus, of which we have 30 to the passage of the Jordan, and 40 from thence to the exod.'

'Synopsis

'SYNOPSIS.

'The passage of the Red Sea, .	430 years	after the promise.
——— Jordan, . .	470 —— 40 years	after.
Conquest of the land, ...	476 —— 6 years	after.
Death of Joshua and the elders, and commencement of the first oppression, . .	500 —— 24 years	after.
Conquest of Chusan, ...	508 —— 8 years	after.
End of first repose, by conquest of Eglon, ...	548 —— 40 years	after.
End of second repose, by conquest of Jabin, ...	628 —— 80 years	after.
End of third repose by conquest of the Midianites . .	668 —— 40 years	after.
End of Gideon, ...	708 —— 40 years	after.
End of Jepthah, ...	762 —— 54 years	after.
End of Abdon, ...	787 —— 25 years	after.
End of Samson and Eli, . . .	827 —— 40 years	after.
End of Samuel and Saul, . . .	867 —— 40 years	after.
End of David, ...	907 —— 40 years	after.
Foundation of the temple, . . .	910 —— 3 years	*complete* afterwards.'

A very spirited reply is made to the objections that have been offered to the chronology here defended: but, instead of adverting to this portion of the dissertation, it is of more importance for us to notice the manner in which the 480 years in 1 Kings, vi. 1., are to be reconciled to the account given by St. Paul, Acts, xiii. 19, 20. For this purpose, Mr. A. suggests a various reading, by which he tries to get rid of 100 years in the reckoning of the Apostle: but it is certainly more probable, if an error in transcribing has occurred, that 100 years should be added to the number in the book of Kings, than that this number should be subtracted from the passage in the Acts. After all, Mr. A. has but indifferent success in removing the objections which bear against his hypothesis from the text in the Acts; and we think that he is not sufficiently respectful to the Apostle, in his summary view of the question at issue.

'Whether, then, we reject the numbers of the Apostle, as falsified by the copyists, and substitute, with the exemplar of Beza, 350 years; or whether, with Usher, we distinguish the points of the text, and suppose the period assigned is from the birth of Isaac to the conquest of the land; or, whether, in fine, we consider the Apostle on his own principle of "being all things to all men, that he might gain some," merely stating the computation he knew to be familiar to his auditory, and not his own:—in whatever aspect, or point of view, we behold this celebrated text, we shall find, that it by no means authorizes the calculus of our adversaries;—that they reject its computation, while they quote its authority, and seem satisfied to force the expressions of the

Apostle to countenance and support their dissent from the acknowledged evidence of Scripture, in order, afterwards, to extend the principle of rejection even against the alledged advocate of their heresy.'

On the whole, we regard this essay as an ingenious specimen of literary prize-fighting, better calculated to display the talents of the writer than to convince the reader.

[*To be concluded in the next Number.*]

ART. VII. *Observations on the Nature and Cure of Dropsies*, and particularly on the Presence of the coagulable Part of the Blood in dropsical Urine; to which is added an Appendix, containing several Cases of *Angina Pectoris*, with Dissections, &c. By John Blackall, M.D., Physician to the Devon and Exeter Hospital, &c. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

DROPSY is one of those diseases which occur under a variety of forms, and is attended with a number of phænomena; while the remedies which have been employed for its cure are also numerous, differing much from each other in their mode of operation, and confessedly very precarious in their effects. The cause of this fact it is not difficult to assign, and indeed it has been frequently pointed out; yet we have not witnessed the exertion of that diligence in counteracting the evil, which might have been expected from the nature of the circumstances. Dropsy consists in a train of symptoms that affect parts very different in their structure; it exists in different habits of the body, is induced by different causes, and seems even to arise from a different proximate cause, according to the parts which it attacks, the nature of the constitution, and other circumstances peculiar to each individual case. When, therefore, we employ the word dropsy in the usual manner, we probably confound dissimilar morbid states of the body under the same denomination; and it is the especial object of Dr. Blackall's publication to point out some distinguishing marks between the diseases thus vaguely arranged under the same name, and to denote the appropriate remedies for each. The attempt is rational and plausible; and we shall lay before our readers the method which the author has pursued, and state the degree of success which he has attained.

Dr. B. observes, in his introduction, that the only circumstance on which the present classification of dropsies depends is their situation, but that this is quite inadequate to throw any light on their cause. Unsoundness of some of the abdominal viscera, mechanical obstruction to the circulation of the fluids,

fluids, a watery state of the blood, defective action of the absorbent and exhalent vessels, and an inflammatory temperament of the body, are enumerated among the various predisposing causes of the disease, all indiscriminately called by the same name, and treated in the same routine. Amid this confusion of opinions and practice, the author has fixed his attention on one symptom, from the presence or absence of which he conceives that an indication may be drawn respecting the state of the constitution, and the nature of the remedies that are applicable to it. He has remarked that, in many cases, of dropsy, the urine possesses the property of being coagulated by heat; and hence he divides dropsies into those with coagulable and those with uncoagulable urine. This faculty of the urine has not indeed been entirely unobserved, and Dr. Blackall mentions several writers who have noticed it. Mr. Cruickshank spoke of it in the most direct manner; and yet, in the present author's opinion, he failed in drawing the correct inference from it.

We next enter on the work itself by an account of those cases of dropsy in which the urine is not coagulable by heat; and these are again divided into such as have the urine pale and without sediment, and sometimes copious; those cases in which it is natural, except being rather scanty; and those in which it is high-coloured, deposits a sediment, and becomes turbid by cooling. The first of these states of the urine is not common, and sometimes is regarded as indicating a serious derangement of the constitution. Digitalis is not applicable to these cases, but a combination of bitters and potash is found useful; as also purgatives and iron: calomel is considered as generally improper. That state of the urine in which it is scanty, high-coloured, and deposits a sediment, is a much more usual form of dropsy. It generally accompanies ascites or hydrothorax, and is often an indication of disease in some of the abdominal viscera. Many cases of this description are related with minuteness; and, in some of those which proved fatal, we have an account of the appearances on dissection. The enumeration of the symptoms, as well as the observations on the treatment, is very judicious, and seems evidently to be the production of a man who viewed the phænomena of disease with an accurate and discerning eye. Dr. B. gives also some useful advice respecting the administration of squill in this variety of dropsy, and considers it as the best diuretic for this species of hydrothorax:

'In the early stage of the disorder, medical treatment does a great deal, principally by means of diuretics; and squill is by far the most powerful of them. This drug gives out its virtues so perfectly to different menstrua, as to make the form of its exhibition in

that respect a matter of indifference. But a solution of it is much more accurately and easily dosed than the powder, and probably admits of a more ready absorption. A minute attention to its dose is, likewise, of great consequence. It never operates so favourably as when it is given in the fullest quantity which the patient can bear without sickness. Indeed, that excellent practical writer, Van Swieten, as well as Dr. Cullen, considered some degree of nausea as proper for securing its diuretic effect. But few persons can be brought to submit to this for several days in succession; and it appears to be an unnecessary piece of severity, particularly as a risk must thus sometimes be incurred of producing full vomiting, which greatly prevents its future use as a diuretic. It is therefore proper to begin with a dose of the vinegar or tincture of squill, so small as not to incur any reasonable chance of sickness, and to increase the quantity gradually till either the desired effect takes place, or some degree of nausea. Just under this point it should be continued till it operates favourably, which will often be in a few days. In this manner it may be exhibited three times daily, and commencing with thirty drops the quantity may be increased to forty or fifty.

'The mistura ammoniaci and spiritus ætheris nitrici seem to assist its operation.

'With the foregoing cautions, the squill will be found to produce very great effects. The urine becomes pale and copious under its use; proportional relief is obtained in the breathing and in the diffused swellings; and it seldom either purges or palls the appetite, as it is justly accused of doing under other circumstances. Frequent repetition only, and the increasing strength of the original malady, impair its action; and if we look for any great effect from it, in removing the visceral obstructions, we shall undoubtedly be disappointed.'

The different species of coagulable or serous dropsy, classed according to the situation in the body which they occupy, form the subject of separate chapters, in which their causes, symptoms, and remedies are discussed. The anasarca which is attended with coagulable urine is referred to four causes, according to which the cases of this description are arranged:

'One of these causes is scarlatina, which operates to a great extent in certain seasons; another is courses of mercury imprudently conducted, and perhaps aided by cold; a third the drinking of cold water when heated; and I have reserved a fourth section for those cases in which the exciting cause was not very obvious nor precise, but appeared connected with different circumstances of fatigue, cold, the use of strong liquors, visceral disease, or the injudicious employment of tonics.'

Each of these four heads is illustrated, as on former occasions, by a number of cases, to which is sometimes added the account of the dissection. After some remarks on cachexy, and on land-scurvy, — states of the constitution which the author conceives to be intimately connected with that which induces dropsy, — we have a valuable set of cases on hydro-

thorax,

thorax, on ascites, and on hydrocephalus. These are followed by a general recapitulation of all the facts that have been related, with the inferences, practical and pathological, that may be deduced from them. The condition of the urine forms a principal object of attention; and many important circumstances are detailed, respecting the morbid changes which it experiences in the various modifications of the disease, and which would seem to point immediately to some improvement in practice. Dr. B. particularly adverts to the coagulable or serous property of the urine:

'In a majority of dropsical cases, the urine is coagulable by heat, but to a very various extent. Sometimes it becomes opaque and milky at 160° or less, and soon breaks into small coagula, or even forms further into a mass nearly solid. In other instances it undergoes no alteration till it almost arrives at the boiling heat, becomes then slightly opaque but not milky, and gives a precipitate both small in quantity and loose in its texture. More rarely, although the change is inconsiderable before it boils, the least evaporation converts it into a tremulous mass.

'The exact state of dilution, in which the serum is present, is not very easy to be determined. Undiluted serum coagulates in a mass, into the composition of which it is evident that much water enters; whilst the coagulated part of this secretion is more separated from its water, more opaque, and resembling lymph or curd; and I have not been able by any artificial dilution of serum to produce exactly the same appearances of coagulation. In one case, and that not apparently the most severe, I obtained, from four ounces, forty grains of a firm white coagulum, which lost by moderate desiccation one-fourth part of its weight, and was in the proportion of two ounces to the quantity of urine discharged daily. In another there remained on the strainer seventy-five grains from four ounces, in the proportion of ten drachms daily, which was softer, and was reduced by moderate desiccation to nearly one half of its weight. In its least degree, it barely tinges the boiling fluid.'

The author's general observations on the different species of dropsy are especially worthy of our attention. They are arranged according to the part of the body which is affected; viz. anasarca, including cachexy, hydrothorax, ascites, hydrocephalus, with lastly a section on *diabetes serosus*, or an excessive discharge of serous urine. Respecting this last disease, it is stated that

'In some cases, the quantity of urine is so much increased, as to give suspicion of a diabetes. The swellings are in a great measure prevented by this excessive discharge; but no other benefit is derived from it. On the contrary, the system is evidently more embarrassed by the loss of serum, than it would have been even by its accumulation. There is a burning thirst, with fever, dry skin, and rapid emaciation of the whole body. The nerves in particular are greatly affected: the despondency being extreme, and the fretfulness of mind often unconquerable by any effort of reason.

'More urine is evacuated in the night than in the day; and the urinary organs themselves sometimes suffer from a feebleness and irritation, similar to what have been observed in the diabetes mellitus.'

Dr. Blackall thinks that this species of diabetes is even more common than that in which the urine is saccharine: but that the amount of fluid discharged is less considerable. To the serous diabetes he is disposed to refer the complaint described by the antients, particularly by Aretæus: but he also supposes that, in some cases, the serous may have been combined with the saccharine diabetes; and, from sugar having been found in the urine, that the disease may have been assigned solely to the latter species. This view of the subject, in which it is attempted to trace a connection between diabetes and dropsy, is interesting; and we are disposed to believe that it is, to a certain degree, correct: yet we can only regard Dr. Blackall as having thrown out an opinion, which remains to be hereafter developed with more minuteness.

The remote and the proximate causes of dropsy form the subject of a chapter. The predisposition is often hereditary, and arises from feebleness of constitution: but it may also be brought on by a variety of causes which induce this state. An important circumstance, and one to which sufficient attention has not been paid, is that this debility is connected in many cases with an inflammatory diathesis; which, from the very commencement, modifies the symptoms, and ought to have a considerable influence on the treatment. The noticing of this condition constitutes one of the novelties of the present work; and it is conceived to bear a relation to the coagulable state of the urine. The proofs of this inflammatory tendency are deduced partly from the appearances on dissection, when, after fatal cases of dropsy, we often meet with symptoms that seem to have originated in inflammation, and partly from the remote causes of the disease; among which the author particularly insists on the effects of a mercurial course, on the operation of certain remedies compared with their effects, on inflammatory habits, and also on the appearance of the blood in many dropsical affections. The manifestation of the dropsical fluid itself, on the consideration of which the Doctor enters at some length, is likewise adduced in proof of this opinion. After having given an account of the characters of the fluid which is transpired into the cavities of the body in a healthy state, (principally taken from Baillie, Hunter, and Hewson,) he concludes that the effused fluid of dropsy is thicker, and contains more animal impregnation; and that it is therefore probably produced by an increased action of the vessels from which it is poured out.

Chapter

Chapter xv. relates to the cure of dropsy; in which all the most approved remedies are enumerated separately, the respective merits of each are discussed, and an attempt is made to indicate the appropriate uses of each. Bleeding is a remedy which the author's view of the nature of dropsy induces him to apply when the phlogistic diathesis is supposed to exist. On this point, he observes that

'The most powerful antiphlogistic agent is vene-section, a remedy which no one would wish to employ in any disease without necessity, and particularly revolting to the general opinion in œdematous swellings. I have, however, directed it in several such instances, and never had reason to regret its use. The state of the blood and the relief that followed have usually confirmed the propriety of the operation. It is most obviously called for by the accession of pneumonia; I believe, likewise, that the disease occasionally falls on the abdomen in such a manner, as equally to require it; and that it is likely to be of particular service after mercurial courses, where the urine is greatly increased in quantity, and in the inflammatory anasarca. It is, indeed, sometimes the only evacuation which can be directed for cachectic patients, their stomach rejecting both laxatives and diuretics; whilst the ease with which they undergo this operation, as well as the relief they experience from it, is truly surprizing. A correct guide to it may be found in the firmness, copiousness, and early appearance of coagulum in the urine; its limits, in the improvement of that discharge, the state of the blood, and the relief of the other symptoms.

'Imperfectly, however, as this subject has hitherto been considered, it will be prudent at first to prescribe it with caution as to quantity, and under those circumstances in which the nature of the cause and of the signs cannot mislead us. Certainly it is not to be viewed with that extreme suspicion which is sometimes entertained against all weakening remedies in chronic ailments, and there are periods of the disorder in which no other operation can preserve life.'

These observations seem to be very judicious; and we must remark that Dr. Blackall recommends his mode of practice with a laudable caution, which is too often overlooked by those who bring forwards any new or unusual doctrine.

Purgatives are next discussed. Their eligibility in certain cases is admitted; 'where the habit is indolent and free from gout, and the dropsy extensive, without fever or local determination, they are, generally speaking, safe, and productive of a considerable effect.'—On the contrary, 'in the cachexy, in which the stomach and intestines are very weak, they do such injury as to be wholly inadmissible; and agreeably to that excellent aphorism of Baglivi, *in morbis pectoris ad vias urinæ ducendum*, I have not seen them render any service in the hydrothorax.' The important class of diuretics receives in course a particular share of attention. Squill is found to be most useful 'where, with an

oppression of the chest, the urine is scanty, high-coloured, full of sediment, and without serum:' but, when the urine is highly serous, when a tendency to inflammation is manifested, and when the digestive organs are affected, it is not admissible. A very ample account is given of the digitalis, which is regarded as one of the most valuable articles of the *materia medica;* since, by the publication of Dr. Withering, we have acquired a proper idea of its dose, and of the mode of its administration. It appears to be especially suited to those cases of dropsy which are attended with a coagulable state of the urine, and those in which an inflammatory state of the blood is suspected. When the viscera are diseased, it is less useful; and when the stomach is affected, it may even be injurious. The state of the urine is supposed to afford a good indication of the value of this remedy. 'If, (says Dr. B.) besides partially coagulating by heat, it is rather scanty, and moderately coloured, foul when made, and containing some red blood, or becoming turbid when cold, and depositing a branny or lateritious sediment, I expect much from the employment of digitalis. If, on the contrary, the urinary secretion, however loaded with serum, is pale and crude, much more if copious, the service derived from it will be very partial, and the dose must be small; and it will be well if it does no injury.' The author enters into a long detail respecting the best form of administering the remedy, its dose, the time during which it should be continued, and every circumstance connected with it.

Appended to the remarks on dropsy, is a section on *angina pectoris;* from which, if our limits permitted, we could make many interesting extracts. We must, however, close this article, by recommending a careful perusal of Dr. Blackall's work to all those who are interested in the improvement of their profession, and who are desirous of gaining information on a subject which is not only of great importance, but which is involved in considerable obscurity.

ART. VIII. *The Rights of Literature;* or an Inquiry into the Policy and Justice of the Claims of certain Public Libraries on all the Publishers and Authors of the United Kingdom, for eleven Copies, on the best Paper, of every new Publication. By John Britton, F.S.A. 8vo. 3s. Longman and Co. 1814.

As the subject of this pamphlet has been much agitated of late, we can scarcely hope to place before our readers any new arguments or information respecting it: but the present tract, besides meriting the attention due to every discussion of a point so much connected with literature, claims our regard as the production of a writer who enters the lists in a different character from that of most of his predecessors.

The opponents of the University-claims have usually set forth the interest of authors as affected by those claims; thinking, probably, that such a plea would find readier admission with the public, than if they had urged the chief injury as resulting to booksellers;—and the rival advocates have taken occasion to invalidate this argument, by remarking that, among those who have appealed to the community in opposition to the law of which they complain, few or none appear to be professed authors, or to come forwards under a personal feeling of the alleged injustice to that class. Mr. Britton, however, observing the inference that has been attempted to be drawn from the silence of authors, declares himself in the outset to be actuated solely by the feelings of an author, in condemning the pretensions of the Universities to a certain number of copies of every published work. In fact, the argument itself, though plausible, will appear on a little consideration to justify no conclusion against the reality of that injury which literature may suffer in the persons of authors. The superior activity evinced by the booksellers, on this question, (for, we apprehend, it needs not be disguised that most of the productions which have appeared on that side proceed from their exertions,) may be explained without resorting to the inference that their rights are principally or solely concerned; by considering, first, that the booksellers, forming a distinct "*trade*," whose joint interests are the habitual object of their common concern, more easily and readily take the alarm, and unite in opposition to any attack on their property, than a set of men like authors who form no distinct fraternity; and, secondly, that, although the interest of the whole class of authors may be more deeply involved than that of booksellers, yet the interest of one publisher, who engages in a great number of copy-rights, will be much greater, and affords therefore a greater stimulus to his exertions, than that of any one author. Even allowing it to be true that the silence, hitherto observed by authors on this topic, may be an evidence that they are less alive to their own concerns than booksellers and publishers, this is rather a reason for than against the protection of them by the legislature.

Mr. Britton commences with an eulogium on the advantages of literature, such as might be expected from one of her votaries. The argumentative part of his tract is employed in shewing, first, that, by the legal interpretation of the statute called the registering act, the claim of the Universities, &c. to eleven copies is confined to such works as are entered at Stationers' Hall:—2dly, in discussing the general impolicy and injustice of extending this claim to all publications whatever.

With

With regard to the first argument, we have only to observe that, the question having been decided in contradiction to Mr. Britton's view of it, by the solemn authority from which we are accustomed to receive the declaration of the law, we must be allowed to doubt whether any good can result to the side which this author espouses by an attempt to arraign the legality of that judgment. Indeed, it does not appear altogether consistent with the avowed object of the pamphlet, which is to support an application to Parliament for a legislative alteration of the law, to begin by concluding that the law is already in favour of the applicants. We deem it necessary to record our opinion on this point, if it were only to prevent our general concurrence in the objects proposed from being construed into a disposition to impeach the judicial determination which has occasioned the necessity of seeking relief from the legislature; and we cannot even refrain from expressing a hope that those, who advocate the cause in Parliament, may abstain from the adoption of that line of argument, since it might, even if urged with conviction, give occasion to the answer that, as the petitioners are convinced that the law is already in their favour, they have shewn no ground for the interference of Parliament. Besides, however, this motive for disagreeing with Mr. B., we confess that his reasoning on the law does not appear to us to be successful. The whole turns on the exposition of the statute 8 Anne, c. 19., the first section of which vests the sole right of printing and publishing for fourteen years in authors and their assignees, under severe penalties. The second section declares that those penalties shall not attach for the piracy of any book, unless that book has been entered in the register of the Stationers' Company. The 5th section is in these words: "Provided always that nine copies of each book, on the best paper, that shall be printed and published *as aforesaid*, shall be delivered to the warehouse-keeper of the Stationers' Company for the use of the Royal Library, the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, the libraries of the four Universities in Scotland, the library of Sion College, and that of the Faculty of Advocates in Scotland." Now, say the advocates on one side, the words "as aforesaid" necessarily refer to the second section, and confine the donation therefore to books entered and registered as there directed: but to this construction a decisive objection may be made; because, as the first section, and the fourth also, relate to the printing and publishing of books, the words of reference "as aforesaid" do not of necessity include the second: nay, farther, the preceding words manifestly exclude it, because the prior sections, having spoken distinctly of two things, viz. the printing and publishing as one, and the

registering as another, the words "*printed and published as aforesaid*," in the 5th clause, instead of "printed, published, and *registered*, as aforesaid," shew that the 5th clause was not intended to comprehend or refer to the provisions of the second.

Though, however, we do not coincide in Mr. Britton's interpretation of the law, we concur in his view of the detrimental consequences of that law, which forms the second part of his argument. Here it appears to us quite immaterial whether the reasoning be founded on an injury to authors or an injury to booksellers, provided that the facts adduced establish that an injury will certainly result to either one or the other: for whatever operates as a drawback to publication must prejudice the general interests of literature. That the law, as it now stands, will have that effect seems to us to be satisfactorily established. It is true, indeed, that, with regard to common and low-priced books, the abstraction of eleven copies may be an insignificant object: but, in the present state of science, it is well known that many of the most valuable works on the arts, natural history, botany, and anatomy, owe a great part of their scientific value to the plates by which they are accompanied; and that, of expensive works of this class, a smaller number is usually printed than of the others: so that the defalcation of eleven copies is no inconsiderable tax on the proprietors of them. We have not space to enter minutely into the detail of facts by which the present author's conclusions are supported: but we cannot omit to notice one, as affording a brief and cogent proof of the real and serious effects with which this tax operates on those who are at least the necessary channels of literature and science, viz. the publishing booksellers. It appears, from the minutes of evidence laid before the House of Commons, that the expence would have been to Messrs. Longman and Co., on an average of the last three years, at the rate of 1800*l.* per ann.: — to Messrs. White, Cochrane, and Co. 5289*l.* for the last twelve years, on the folios and quartos alone; — and to Messrs. Cadell and Davies, for the last four years, 1362*l.* of the small-paper-copies alone, while on the books now announced by them the tax would amount to 1000*l.*

Surely, we are not now in a state of society which requires any argument to be used in proving the importance and policy of protecting the interests of literature. On that subject, no difference of sentiment is at least professed. We conceive, therefore, that, in the discussion of the question in Parliament, now about to take place, regarding the propriety of modifying the law as it is at present, it will only be necessary to establish that

that the regulation is really a severe and unfair tax on the sale of literary publications. This proof must be founded on matter of fact, and plain statements of profit and loss; which are much more deserving of reliance than any declamatory reasoning on either side. Among the facts mentioned by Mr. Britton, we notice one which we do not recollect to have before seen introduced. It has been taken for granted that, when any part of an impression remained unsold, the subtraction of 11 copies is in fact no loss: but Mr. Britton observes that, by a custom among the trade, not generally known, *trade-sales* are formed, in which 'all the copies remaining in the publisher's hands are disposed of to individuals of the profession for one half or one third of the selling prices, but almost always for more than the prime cost. Suppose, then, out of an edition of 500 copies 200 remain in the warehouse unsold; now if 11 were delivered at the first publication of the work, is it not clear that, in making up the accounts at a trade-sale of these 200, they must be charged with the original or trade-sale-price of the eleven?'

It would be impossible, in the limits which we are enabled to allot to this article, to go through all the facts stated, in order to demonstrate the justice of the complaint made by authors and publishers against the claim in question. Suffice it to say, we have little doubt that they will convince every impartial inquirer that the *object* of the law, as it exists at present, however laudable, ought to be consulted by some means less repugnant to justice, and less detrimental to literature, than those which the enactment prescribes.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For APRIL, 1814.

POETRY.

Art. 9. *Carmen Triumphale*, for the Commencement of the Year 1814. By Robert Southey, Esq., Poet-Laureat. 4to. 3s. 6d. Longman and Co.

What a splendid æra is the present, for Great Britain! Never before did she stand on so proud an eminence in the estimation of the world; never was she so decidedly the arbitress of the fate of nations! Mr. Southey, having commenced his career of poet-laureat at a period so sublimely auspicious, and not being obliged to compose the usual New-Year's ode for recitation, is more than justified in expanding into a *Carmen Triumphale*. To say the truth, he could not otherwise have so well expressed his own feelings as a warm patriot; nor have *played up* to the feelings of his readers. The poet-laureat of 1814 would have been unworthy of his office, had he not

not been animated by a glowing enthusiasm in decorating with poetic laurels the brows of our illustrious heroes, who, by their skill and valour, have foiled the ambitious projects of a daring enemy; in congratulating Europe on the happy changes which have taken place in consequence of our generous interposition; and in depicting the bright prospects which are now opening before us. We will not say that it is impossible for a poet to have produced any composition better adapted to the circumstances of this wonderful year, than the present *Carmen Triumphale*: but, in justice to Mr. Southey, we shall bear an unqualified testimony to his patriotic zeal and poetic energy, which glow from the opening to the conclusion of his ode. The burden of his song being 'Glory to God! Deliverance to Mankind!' he assumes the privilege of pious composers, by introducing the language of holy Scripture into his verse; and, on this exulting occasion, perhaps he may be fairly allowed the use of some expressions from David's Psalms: but we must protest against the allusion in stanza XVI. to Ezekiel's "*valley of dry bones*," since it has an effect rather ludicrous than grand.

The series of victories obtained by our arms, in the Peninsula, under the able guidance of our illustrious General, whom Mr. S. uniformly calls *The* Wellesley, occupies a conspicuous portion in this *Carmen*. He considers Germany, Russia, and the nations of the North, to have caught from us their spirit of resistance to unprincipled aggression; and, in the second and third stanzas, he has well depicted our firmness in the contest even when standing alone:

'Wake, lute and harp! My soul take up the strain!
Glory to God! Deliverance for Mankind!
Joy, . . for all nations, joy! but most for thee
Who hast so nobly fill'd thy part assign'd,
O England! O my glorious native land!
For thou in evil days didst stand
Against leagued Europe all in arms array'd,
Single and undismay'd,
Thy hope in Heaven and in thine own right hand.
Now are thy virtuous efforts overpaid.
Thy generous counsels now their guerdon find, . .
Glory to God! Deliverance for Mankind!

'Dread was the strife, for mighty was the foe
Who sought with his whole strength thy overthrow.
The Nations bow'd before him; some in war
Subdued, some yielding to superior art;
Submiss, they followed his victorious car.
Their Kings, like Satraps, waited round his throne;
For Britain's ruin and their own.
By force or fraud in monstrous league combined.
Alone in that disastrous hour
Britain stood firm and braved his power;
Alone she fought the battles of mankind.'

The steady perseverance and undaunted spirit of the Spaniards in resisting the wicked and merciless invaders of their country, are next displayed:

'Patient

'Patient of loss, profuse of life,
Meantime had Spain endured the strife;
And tho' she saw her cities yield,
Her armies scatter'd in the field,
Her strongest bulwarks fall,
The danger undismay'd she view'd,
Knowing that nought could e'er appal
The Spaniards' fortitude.
What tho' the Tyrant, drunk with power,
Might vaunt himself, in impious hour,
Lord and Disposer of this earthly ball?
Her cause is just, and Heaven is over all.

'Therefore no thought of fear debased
Her judgment, nor her acts disgraced.
To every ill, but not to shame resign'd,
All sufferings, all calamities she bore,
She bade the people call to mind
Their heroes of the days of yore
Pelayo and the Campeador,
With all who once in battle strong,
Lived still in story and in song.
Against the Moor, age after age,
Their stubborn warfare did they wage;
Age after age from sire to son,
The hallowed sword was handed down;
Nor did they from that warfare cease,
And sheath that hallowed sword in peace,
Until the work was done.'

Turning his eye from Iberia to the Northern powers, the Laureat thus pours forth his exulting strains:

'From Spain the living spark went forth:
The flame hath caught, the flame is spread!
It warms, . . it fires the farthest North.
Behold! the awaken'd Moscovite
Meets the Tyrant in his might;
The Brandenberg, at Freedom's call,
Rises more glorious from his fall;
And Frederic, best and greatest of the name,
Treads in the path of duty and of fame.
See Austria from her painful trance awake!
The breath of God goes forth, . . the dry bones shake!
Up Germany! . . with all thy nations rise!
Land of the virtuous and the wise,
No longer let that free, that mighty mind,
Endure its shame! She rose as from the dead,
She broke her chains upon the oppressor's head —
Glory to God! Deliverance for Mankind!'

As *pax quæritur bello*, the song of triumph for victories generally ends with an address to *Peace*, and a picture of the blessedness of her reign.

reign. When Mr. S. wrote he could not be aware how rapidly Peace was approaching, but his finale is very appropriate:

'When shall the Dove go forth? Oh when
Shall Peace return among the Sons of Men?
Hasten benignant Heaven the blessed day!
Justice must go before,
And Retribution must make plain the way;
Force must be crushed by Force,
The power of Evil by the power of Good,
Ere Order bless the suffering world once more,
Or Peace return again.
Hold then right on in your auspicious course,
Ye Princes, and ye People, hold right on!
Your task not yet is done:
Pursue the blow, . . ye know your foe, . .
Compleat the happy work so well begun!
Hold on and be your aim with all your strength
Loudly proclaim'd and steadily pursued!
So shall this fatal Tyranny at length
Before the arms of Freedom fall subdued.
Then when the waters of the flood abate,
The Dove her resting-place secure may find:
And France restored, and shaking off her chain,
Shall join the Avengers in the joyful strain,
Glory to God! Deliverance for Mankind!'

Art. 10. *Hymn of Thanksgiving, on the Occasion of our late Victories*, and for other signal National Mercies and Deliverances. By the Rev. J. Whitehouse, late of St. John's College, Cambridge, Rector of Orlingbury, Northamptonshire, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

Others besides the Poet-laureat will be impelled to tune the song of praise on the brilliant termination of our military exertions: but, though many may be urged to attempt "the lofty rhime" by the same patriotic feelings, on every noble daring the Muses will not smile with equal benignity. While we are disposed to render full justice to the virtuous ardour with which Mr. Whitehouse has been animated, and applaud the sentiments by which he has been inspired, we must remark that he has displayed more piety than poetry, and that his pen has moved with more facility than success. Let the reader judge by the following passage:

'Thanksgiving and praise to GOD be given,
Who does what He wills in earth and heaven:
The Oppressor He suffers awhile to proceed
In guilt's broad path, but not to exceed
The bounds Eternal Wisdom traced,
And which no son of earth e'er passed;
"Hitherto mayest thou go, but *here*
Shall thy proud waves be stayed!"
Let tyrants boast; unknowing they were made
Heaven's purposed judgments to fulfil
The instruments of the ALMIGHTY's will;

Yet

Yet shall they perish soon and pass
Frail as the leaf or flower of grass,
Which long before the morning sun
Has risen, is faded away and gone.'

Britain's part in the recent eventful drama is not forgotten, nor the exploits of her great hero. Having first ascribed praise to *the God of Hosts*, Mr. W. thus descends to second causes:

'And next to THEE, and under thy great name,
Say shall we not rehearse the fame
And blaze the merits of our WELLINGTON,
Valour's immortal son!
By THEE, *through him*, the GREAT WORK has been done.'

We suspect that Lord Wellington will be better pleased with the intention than the execution of this compliment.

ART. 11. *A Pair of Odes for the New Year*, 1814; being an Ode occasioned by the Festivities at Belvoir Castle, on the recent Baptism of the Infant Marquis of Granby; and a Revolutionary Ode, addressed to the French Nation, and respectfully inscribed to His Majesty, Louis XVIII., the Legitimate Sovereign of France. By the Rev. L. Blakeney, A.M., Curate of Lechlade. 4to. 2s. Wilson.

The baptism of a babe, and the return of a long exiled king to the throne of his ancestors, are subjects of such unequal interest, that an ode on the former should not have been coupled with an ode on the latter. Grateful for favours received from the Rutland family, Mr. Blakeney may sincerely as well as poetically pray that the noble child may emulate his great ancestor, the celebrated Marquis of Granby, or even equal the fame of a Wellington: but are the public sufficiently interested to say *Amen?* — To his Revolutionary Ode, however, the reader will turn in expectation of finding something which will harmonize with the enthusiasm of the present moment. Here, indeed, the writer breathes wishes which have since been in a great measure realized; and his poetry, if it be not of the first class, is in unison with the order of the day. The first stanza, and the chorus which is repeated in every page, will be a sufficient specimen of the whole ode:

'Rouse, rouse! degenerate sons of Gaul!
Burst from your necks the iron yoke!
Confirm your blood-stain'd tyrant's fall,
By tardy Justice' ling'ring stroke:

Swell, swell, with injur'd millions' breath,
Thro' Gallia's desolated bounds,
The dread decree, the awful sounds,
"Freedom and Peace! Revenge and Death!"

Let age and infancy combine,
Widows, and childless parents join;
And countless orphans swell the throng,
That pour this animating song; —

'CHORUS.

'CHORUS.

'Down, down from his imperial car,
The wretch, whom Europe's realms abhor;
The fiend, whose sole delight is war,
Be stern Napoleon hurl'd!
By Retribution's vengeful sword
The fierce Usurper's blood be pour'd;
Be Gallia's rightful lord restor'd,
And peace shall bless the world.'

Mr. B. calls for the blood of the usurper; and a fall, like that of Bonaparte, may probably end in his death: but, if he ever reaches the island of Elba, he will be *brevibus clausus gyaris*, and can never more disturb the world.

Art. 12. *Ode to Napoleon Buonaparte.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray. 1814.

From general report, and from circumstantial and internal evidence accompanying this ode, we cannot doubt that it is the production of Lord Byron. That it appears, contrary to his usual custom, without his name, is probably owing to a recollection of his recent declaration that he had thrown aside the pen, rather than to any hesitation in avowing the sentiments which it contains. No politician, moralist, or satirist, has been or can be more bitter in invective against the degraded Bonaparte than the present poet; and his ode is as full of classical allusion as of vituperation. The title-page is appropriately decorated with Juvenal's advice:

"*Expende Annibalem: — quot libras in Duce summo*
Invenies?"——

and, weighed in the poet's balance, this former hero is now indeed "found wanting." That he can consent to live, "shorn of his beams," is a principal point of attack: but, contemptible as his catastrophe is represented, it is said to afford the stronger moral and political lesson:

'If thou hadst died as honour dies
Some new Napoleon might arise,
To shame the world again —
But who would soar the solar height,
To set in such a starless night?'

The mention of the Archduchess Maria Louisa, and the uncertainty whether she would be separated from Napoleon, or still cling to him and his fallen fortunes, gives occasion to the writer for expressing a sentiment of gallantry that is quite in character with Lord Byron:

'Must she too bend, must she too share
Thy late repentance, long despair,
Thou throneless homicide?
If still she loves thee, *hoard that gem,*
'Tis worth thy vanished diadem.'

A bitter meaning is conveyed in the following just allusion:

'Then haste thee to thy sullen isle,
And gaze upon the sea;
That element may meet thy smile,
It ne'er was ruled by thee!'

With a reference to the Roman who,

'when his burning heart
Was slaked with blood of Rome,
Threw down his dagger—dared depart,
In savage grandeur, home,'

and to the abdication of Charles V., the poet thus apostrophizes Bonaparte:

'But thou—from thy reluctant hand
The thunderbolt is wrung—
Too late thou leav'st the high command
To which thy weakness clung;
All evil spirit as thou art,
It is enough to grieve the heart,
To see thine own unstrung;
To think that God's fair world hath been
The footstool of a thing so mean;

'And earth hath spilt her blood for him,
Who thus can hoard his own!
And monarchs bowed the trembling limb,
And thanked him for a throne!
Fair Freedom! we may hold thee dear,
When thus thy mightiest foes their fear
In humblest guise have shown.
Oh! ne'er may tyrant leave behind
A brighter name to lure mankind!'

Another historical allusion introduces a prophecy that the exile must terminate his career under the canker of reflection:

'He who, of old would rend the oak,
Dreamed not of the rebound;
Chained by the trunk he vainly broke
Alone—how looked he round?
Thou in the sternness of thy strength
An equal deed hast done at length,
And darker fate hast found:
He fell, the forest-prowlers' prey;
But thou must eat thy *heart away!*'

After all, Fate having denied to Bonaparte the chance of falling in battle, when he returned too late to the succour of his metropolis, does it become a Christian, as it might a Roman or a *Mameluke*, to stigmatize him for not having wound up all his crimes in the commission of self-murder? Certainly, the tragedy has not ended heroically with regard to him, but it has terminated happily for mankind; and his survival may be rendered happy for himself, in giving him time for repentance.

'The

The guarantee, by the magnanimity of the allied and restored sovereigns, of all the titles and property of Napoleon's great military and political associates, forms an exception to the remark,

> 'Thine only power hath been the grave
> To those that worshipp'd thee;'

and we hope that farther exceptions will yet be made, in the preservation of such enactments and institutions as were formed by Bonaparte, that are calculated for the real benefit and glory of the French people.

Art. 13. *Specimens of English accentuated Verse*, wherein the Intensity of Pronunciation is measured, and the Length of the Syllables unnoticed. By Richard Edwards, B.A. 12mo. 1s. 4d. Author, No. 9. Great Russell Street.

Take the first slice of Mr. E.'s verse; it professes to be a comment on Rev. chap. xii.

> 'John saw a prodigious appearance on high,
> Which I herein with great dilatation shall try
> To explain to the reader. A woman display'd
> A conspicuous form in the heavens, array'd
> With the glorious sun on her belly instead
> Of a vesture, and twelve stars circled her head,
> And the moon was a pedestal under her feet.
> That the Truth is the woman our proof is complete.'

Art. 14. *Specimens of English non-accentuated Verse, or Verse measured*, with a Regard had solely to the Length of Time required in the Pronunciation of Syllables; the Accent and Emphasis being entirely unnoticed. By the Same. 12mo. 2s. Author.

A bit also of this precious article shall be served up to the reader, and the first bit too:

> 'Psalm cxxxi. — *Iambic.*
>
> 'JEHOVAH, see my mind is
> Not haughty, nor my aspect
> Offensive and assuming;
> By use have I aversion
> To make a rash pretension
> To things of high attainment;
> A child affords example
> To teach my soul abasement.
> O Israël be always
> Confiding in Jehovah.'

Art. 15. *Treatise on English Prosody.* By the Same. 12mo. 1s. 4d. Author.

This treatise begins with the following sentence: 'As there were no poems in verse in the English language before those which I have recently written, (see the above specimens,) no rules of English prosody were needed.' In the title-page, Mr. E. says, with some little shade of vanity, or something else ending in *ity*, 'that there never has been a verse-writer in the language before.' Having so high a conceit of himself, how must he have been mortified at the rejection of

his verse by two Magazines; and how low must be his opinion of our poetic taste when we declare that, if he be the only verse-writer in our language, we hope that no English verse will in future be written!

Art. 16. *Emancipation*, a Poem; by Robert Dornan, Esq. 8vo. 5s. sewed. Stockdale, Junior. 1814.

Of the patriotic and catholic zeal of Mr. Dornan, we cannot speak too highly; and, as the cause which he advocates receives our most cordial support, we should have felt real pleasure, had we been able to welcome his muse with applause. Alas! his poetry is not what we wished to find it; he is a prosing versifier, remarkably careless in his rhimes, and destitute of that energy which we should have supposed his subject would have inspired. When he declaims, he is feeble; and, when he endeavours to argue, he is unsatisfactory. Respecting the *veto*, he thus writes:

> 'Enlighten'd policy maintain'd
> It wise to grant them what they claim'd:
> Yet venal ones have still been found,
> By art, to gain some higher ground;
> To purchase the unsteady vote;
> To keep the idle tale afloat,
> What perils might the state impend
> Should base disunion have an end;
> Of foreign influence to speak,
> Intemperate words, advantage take;
> Of doubts that, from their weakness, rise,
> Of vetos — and securities:
> A veto ask'd? — to this reply —,
> In other words, 'tis to deny.'

Mr. D. maintains that allegiance of the Catholic church to the Pope *in spirituals* is an indispensable part of her system, being necessary 'to preserve its purity:' but he contends that the state has no ground for alarm on this account, as the Pope does not

> '——— interference seek with aught
> That appertains to worldly thought.'

He then adds,

> 'This solemn protest made and by
> Men of well-tried veracity,
> In reason's ear would serve at least
> To set this futile plea at rest.'

It is rather unlucky that the testimony of History is a little at variance with the report of these 'men of well-tried veracity:' but we shall not here agitate the point. Some difficulties may occur on the subject of Catholic-emancipation: but, on a general and enlarged view of the question, that measure is most devoutly to be wished, and here Mr. D. preaches well:

> 'Since justice, mercy, all unite,
> Since subjects only claim their right,
> Let prudence' voice be heard at last,
> And good atone for evils past:

Reign

Resign to wisdom's milder sway
Your thoughts, and throw the sword away
Of persecution, — fatal line
Of policy — of fear the sign;
Worthy alone the darkest age,
That sullies the historic page.

'Banish distrust, that deadly foe,
And learn the real good to know;
To rule by laws of such a kind,
As force observance on the mind;
Obedience' truest, only spring,
The loyalty we owe a king,
Who makes our happiness his care,
And learns, from mercy to forbear;
Who proves his love of equal right,
By keeping practice still in sight!'

Poets are prone to run into length, and Mr. D. is guilty of this fault. Had he studied compression, his verse would have produced more effect.

EDUCATION.

Art. 17. *Punctuation;* or an Attempt to facilitate the Art of Pointing, on the Principles of Grammar and Reason. For the Use of Schools, and the Assistance of general Readers. By S. Rousseau. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1813.

Some advantage may certainly be derived from the perusal of these hints, although the examples are needlessly multiplied, and in a few instances the writer's grammar is inaccurate. Thus, (in p. 105.) he says, '*every verse* in the Psalms, the Te Deum, and some other parts of the Liturgy of the Church of England, *are* divided by a colon;' and in page 146. the following sentence is incorrect: 'we do not see but such a mode of punctuation is allowable.' Some errors occur also in the quotations; such as in page 47., 'Nor cast *me* longing ling'ring look behind;' and, page 63., 'And bathed in *fragment* oils that breathed of Heaven.' These mistakes may be attributable to the printer, but they ought to have been rectified. It is to be observed, also, that the author has borrowed too largely from preceding writers, without due acknowlegement.

Art. 18. *Travels at Home, and Voyages by the Fire-side;* for the Instruction and Entertainment of Young Persons. Two Volumes, 12mo. 6s. half-bound. Rees. 1814.

The plan on which these little volumes are constructed is good; but the author* is mistaken in supposing the idea to be new, since Mrs. Wakefield and (we believe) Mr. Evans have preceded him in the

* Said to be the Rev. Dr. Lloyd, to whom the public stands indebted for "Particulars of the Life of a Dissenting Minister," noticed, as anonymous, in our Number for February last, p. 220., and also for a tract intitled "On the Choice of a School," mentioned by us in our last Volume, p. 315.

fabrication of imaginary voyages and travels. To avoid all appearance of deception, the present author fully apprizes his pupils of the nature of the undertaking, and bids them observe that the several voyages or travels which he is about to detail are not *real:* but, in our judgment, he would have avoided the necessity of this caution, had his title been *Travels on the Map*, for then the voyage, as far as it is designated, is real; and, by first marking the point of departure on a map or chart previously spred on the table, and tracing the route to be taken with a pointed instrument, the eye of the student makes a real progress from station to station, while the preceptor details the information which is necessary to render the excursion instructive and amusing. Another circumstance requires attention in the compilation of these details, viz. not to put knowlege into the mouth of the imaginary juvenile traveller which he has no possibility of collecting. A young person, who really sailed from London to Dover, thence down the Channel, and actually landed in the island of Jersey, would perceive by his intercourse with the people of the latter place a mixed dialect, and might naturally ask his parent for an explanation: but the traveller *at home* has no opportunity of this kind, and therefore the speech assigned to *Lucy*, at p. 42., is out of character. 'Listen, papa, the people here speak French, I declare, with now and then some English words intermixed. How is that, if they are subject to us?' Some kind of illusion is useful in this sort of travelling; and therefore it is not prudent on all occasions to interpose such hints as the following: 'nothing but improvement and pleasure, surely, can be experienced in *Travels at Home*. Voyages by the fire-side impose a little attention on those who make them. Danger is out of the question.' p. 63. In the commencement, such a hint is proper: but, when often repeated, which is the case in these volumes, the whole becomes tame and flat. These dampers may be expunged in a second edition; to which the work will probably arrive, since it is written in a pleasing style, and adds to much local information many pertinent and improving observations and reflections.

The author speculates on the production of two more volumes, and we take it for granted that he will be encouraged to carry his purpose into execution: but, as he protests against vulgar expressions, we must request that he will not use the word *tasty*, p. 238., which may be found in the cook's vocabulary but not in Johnson; and that he will not make Eliza exclaim, at p. 43., 'Oh, I should like *of all things!*'

A traveller *at home*, moreover, should not have represented the curious machinery, worked by a steam-engine, in Portsmouth dock-yard, as performing the business of rope-making, (see Vol. ii. p. 154.) because this machinery is employed in making *blocks*. Is not the author erroneous, also, when he represents Hannibal as crossing Mt. St. Gothard, on passing from Spain into Italy? (p. 188.) Cornelius Nepos, *Vit. Han.*, says that this commander passed the Alps which adjoin to Gaul; and Cellarius remarks that the Pennine Alps are those which Hercules and Hannibal are supposed to have crossed. Whitaker, also, in his modern work on the passage of Hannibal over these mountains, adopts the same opinion.

These

These travels, while they afford young persons some knowlege of other nations, are written so as to produce an attachment to their own country.

PHILOSOPHY.

Art. 19. *Lunar Observations*, denoting the Influence of the Moon on the Winds, by her Impulses on the Earth's Atmosphere, governed by her Configuration, Position, and other Changes; exemplifying the Cause of such Changes; with Demonstrations how to connect every Sign with the Results of its Indications: also a clearer Definition of the Terms *Air* and *Atmosphere*; explaining on what Principle of Nature the heavenly Orbs are kept in their Spheres. By Sol. Go. Da Costa. 8vo. 2s. Underwood.

It has been perhaps from time immemorial a very commonly received opinion, that the frequent changes which are experienced in our atmosphere are in some measure influenced by the moon. Even astronomers and meteorologists have asserted that, had we but sufficient data, we might as accurately compute the courses of the wind as the time and duration of an eclipse: but few, we presume, were bold enough to conceive that such data were at all likely to be obtained; and indeed they might and would, in all probability, have still remained among the impenetrable secrets of Nature, had it not, as Mr. da Costa *modestly* expresses himself, 'pleased the Almighty to bestow upon him such intellectual powers, as to enable him to comprehend his wisdom and goodness,' and thus to obtain a clue to the direction of the winds. The author, indeed, seems fully aware of the importance of his discovery. 'So strong,' says he, 'is my persuasion that I have attained a step higher than any who have devoted their entire labours to the study of astronomy, that I feel impatient to communicate my discovery, and have therefore resolved on publishing it for the benefit of the human race, and with the hope that my country and posterity will render it that justice it is deserving of.'

Such being the pretensions of the author, our readers will not be surprised to find that this little tract contains a learned disquisition on the "man in the moon," and his influence on the wind and weather. This man, it seems, is perpetually shifting his postures and positions, and frequently putting on the most unseemly shapes: from an unremitting attention to which, for four years, the author has drawn *certain* and *infallible* indications of the state of the winds from one change of the moon to another: — abating only a few days, which may still be variable, and which are attributable to certain 'veins and currents on the smooth surface of the moon's circumference;' the hollows or cavities of the same being *filled* with a sort of 'celestial *void*' which the man in the moon is perpetually hurling on this sublunary globe in the form of wind and rain; — and hence in course the obvious connection between his several positions, and the various changes in the wind and weather.

Nor is this all. We have some other equally ingenious theories, on the ebbing and flowing of the tides, the air and atmosphere, the elements of matter, &c. &c. Mr da Costa has even discovered that

fish cannot graze in meadows, nor can beasts fly! 'The heavens, it seems, 'cannot be hermetically sealed *in vacuo*;' nor could the moon be retained in her orbit, without the 'pulsive force of rarity and density.' How justly, therefore, does the author say that 'a discovery of such imposing interest cannot fail to benefit the navigator, enrich the science of astronomy, and be useful to all mankind!!'

We have only farther to add that, whatever may be our opinion of the influence of the moon as affecting the wind and the weather, we can scarcely doubt her dominion over the author when he determined on the publication of the present performance.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 20. *The Energy of Talent, and the Reward of active Virtue and Benevolence.* An Address delivered at the Interment of Joseph Dawson, Esq. of Royds-Hall, in the County of York, in the Protestant Dissenting Chapel, in Chapel-lane, Bradford, December 18. 1813. By the Rev. Thomas Jervis. 8vo. 1s. Johnson and Co.

We have very rarely met with a more correct, animated, and impressive specimen of demonstrative eloquence than this address exhibits. It is one of the first duties of survivors to consecrate the grave of persons of pre-eminent moral and intellectual worth by an appropriate eulogy, such as that which Mr. Jervis delivered at the interment of Mr. Dawson. The meed of praise was his due; and who will aspire after virtue, *præmia si tollas?* 'The custom of eulogizing the illustrious,' says Mr. J., 'is agreeable to the practice of poets, orators, and moralists in the classic ages of Greece and Rome;' and that he had classic models in his recollection is evident from an excellent parody of the most celebrated passage in Cicero's *Cato Major* *, with which he concludes. The character of Mr. Dawson is drawn with a masterly hand, and, for the traits of talent and virtue which it manifests, may be recommended as a moral study: but it is too much extended to be copied into our pages.

Art. 21. *An Essay on the Authenticity of the New Testament;* with an Account of the ancient Versions, and some of the principal Greek Manuscripts. By J. F. Gyles, Esq. A.M. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Hatchard.

In an age much prone to infidelity, defences of revelation can never be unseasonable, even though nothing new in point of argument be adduced in them. Mr. Gyles endeavours to place a few striking facts within a narrow compass, in order to accommodate himself to those who have not much time for books. His object, he says, is 'to compress in a few pages, in the compass of an hour's reading, some important arguments for the authenticity of the N.T., with as much general information on the subject as the limits of the plan would admit.'

To short accounts of the most approved versions and MSS. of the N.T., Mr. Gyles adds the testimonies of those antient enemies

* "*O præclarum diem, cùm, ad illud divinum animorum concilium, cœtumque proficiscar, cumque ex hâc turbâ et colluvione discedam!*" &c.

of Christianity, Celsus, Porphyry, and Julian; shewing that, while they opposed the religion of Jesus, they confirmed the authenticity of the N. T. Some judicious remarks on the style of those sacred books are subjoined: but we think that the plain readers, for whom the author intends this essay, will not understand him when he observes, p. 72., that the 'writings of Porphyry staggered the faith of some Christians, and totally changed *the polarity of it* in others.'

Art. 22. *Occasional Considerations on various Passages of Scripture.* By the Author of "Sunday Reflections." 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard.

It is admitted by the author that these Considerations belong to 'the Sermon-family;' and had not the new word, lately coined, been also appropriated, they might not improperly have been intitled *Sermonets:* but, though the lady who has invented the *Sermonet*, and in course obtained a patent for it in the court of criticism, will not allow her right to be *invaded*, it may yet be safely *evaded* by a still greater affectation of humility, or by a diminutive still farther diminished. Perhaps, in the present instance, some use may be made of the hint, and in the next edition these Occasional Considerations may be termed *Sermonetettas*. In fact, they are sermons in disguise, forming a sort of continuation of the "Sunday Reflections," intended for Sunday-evening reading, and are indeed sufficiently serious and practical for this purpose. Publications calculated for family-exhortation are becoming numerous: we hope that a perverse decrease of family-religion and piety will not defeat the object of these speculations.

Art. 23. *The Friendly Call of Truth and Reason to a new Species of Dissenters;* or nominal Churchmen, but practical Schismatics; to which are prefixed, a few Observations on the Expediency of Parliamentary Interposition, duly to explain, and if necessary to amend, the Act of William and Mary, commonly called "The Toleration Act." By the Rev. Edward Barry, M.D., Rector of St. Mary's and St. Leonard's, Wallingford, Berks. 4th Edition. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Rivingtons.

By those persons to whom this *Friendly Call* is addressed, it will not be regarded either in its style or its object as very friendly. No body of Dissentients will like to be stigmatised as 'Dissenters from *artifice* and *dissimulation*;' nor will Dissenters in general be very thankful to Dr. Barry for the *guarded* liberality expressed by him in the following sentence: 'Of those who are truly and conscientiously Dissenters, and by *suitable manners* and *appearances* come within the *description* and *real* meaning of the act; far, very far, be it from me to surmise any thing that should have a tendency to abridge the liberty.' Who is to be the judge of these *suitable manners* and *appearances?* Who is to distinguish between what Dr. B. calls 'the claims of sincerity and those of *deception?*' By the parliamentary interposition which such a reasoner would recommend, short work would be made with Dissenters, 'who have considered it their *duty* to *revolt* from the church as by law established.' If to dissent is to revolt, this act is a high crime and misdemeanour, and ought to be

be punished accordingly; the Toleration Act ought not to be altered, but repealed; and the old penal statutes against Dissenters should be revived.

We notice these traits in Dr. B.'s *Friendly Call*, to shew that his mode of displaying 'truth and reason' is more adapted to irritate than to persuade. His zeal for the established church, and his alarm on the subject of dissent, are apparent in his remarks on the British and Foreign Bible Society; and probably many persons are to be found, who cherish similar feelings: but Dissentients are not likely to be conviaced on being roundly charged by a beneficed clergyman with the crime of *schism*; especially when the accusation may be retorted, since they have no otherwise separated from the Protestant established church, than the Protestant formerly separated from the Catholic church.

Art. 24. *An Inquiry into the Evidence of the Divine Origin of the Christian Religion.* 8vo. 1s. Bickerstaff. 1813.

Misapprehension sometimes passes for ingenuity, and we are charitably disposed to hope that we have here a case in point; since, if we could, we would attribute a good meaning to the present author, though we are unable to perceive any soundness in his argument, or any correctness in his view of the Christian religion. According to him, if our religion be from God, 'we must resign all possibility of comprehending its merits or tendency:—we want a further sense to view it distinctly.' Now this proposition is no more absurd than the following, viz. that, if food be the gift of God, we shall require an additional stomach in order to digest it. In the works of revelation, as well as in those of nature, we perceive an adaptation of means to ends: we find in the sacred Scriptures that the word of God is addressed to our reason and understanding; and inquiry is urged as a means of leading man to conviction. Indeed, the inquiry respecting Christianity here proposed is completely useless, and even farcical, if, as the anonymous writer asserts, 'we are incompetent to decide on its good or bad effects.' If we cannot tell whether it be good or bad, can we be interested in the discussion of its evidences? Another remark in this little pamphlet is made with much plausibility: but, from the manner in which it is offered and defended, we are led to suspect that the author does not mean to render Christianity that service which he pretends to design:

'The argument which has been deemed the most powerful and effective against this religion is, that it is founded on miracles, but that to prove a miracle there must be miraculous evidence, because no fact or event can be proved without tantamount evidence, or evidence of equal degree. I will admit this argument, and at once lay it down, that the Christian religion, resting on miracles, cannot be substantiated without miraculous proof.'

To establish this miraculous proof, long quotations are made from the O. T. respecting the Jewish people; and the connection between the predictions concerning them and the occurrence of events is termed a miraculous proof: but the writer must know that the fulfilment of a prophecy delivered in the O. T. is no proof of the miracles

rudes recorded in the N. T.; and, if he would insinuate that, from the nature of the case, no better is to be obtained, the supposition is not altogether improbable that, while he repeats Hume's objection against the evidence of miracles, he is partial to Hume's creed. — When, moreover, it is hinted that a part of the prophecy concerning the Jews is accomplished, and that 'at this moment we can see the gradual march of circumstances to the fulfilment of the last part,' (meaning their restoration to the land of Canaan,) the author can only mean to sport with the credulity of his readers; for what one circumstance can be pointed out as indicative of this return? Are we to suspend our belief in the Gospel till this improbable event occurs?—Mr. Anonymous, you appear in a very questionable shape!

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 25. *An Essay on Average;* and on other Subjects connected with the Contract of Marine Insurance. Dedicated, by Permission, to the Committee for managing the Affairs of Lloyd's. By Robert Stevens, of Lloyd's. 8vo. pp. 196. Boards. Richardson. 1813.

We have more than once expressed our sollicitude to see a greater proportion of publications on mercantile topics, in the hope that they would conduce to facilitate to the young trader the acquisition of that knowlege which, as matters stand at present, is found to require the best part of a person's life. Without wishing to insinuate that any printed instructions can supply the want of practice, we must be allowed to repeat that they might be made to co-operate very efficaciously with the effects of active participation in business; and to lead, at a comparatively early period, to the formation of those general views which constitute the sum of the experience of an enlightened merchant. Above thirty years, it seems, have now passed since any work has been printed on the *practical* part of insurance; a circumstance which is considered by Mr. Stevens as a principal cause of the state of uncertainty in which many points continue to be involved. Merchants in general, he adds, possess much less information on this subject than its importance to their interest requires; and, even among underwriters, the rules for the adjustment of disputed claims are still very imperfectly understood. Mr. S. does not flatter himself that the establishment, by authority, of a code of insurance-regulations, would form a satisfactory settlement of the question, because an attempt of this nature, made in 1747, failed in an early stage; and there seems to be little hope of arriving at undisputed conclusions, until repeated discussions and decisions shall have paved the way for the adoption of comprehensive principles.

It is a familiar remark that we are little aware of the extent of labour in acquiring a thorough knowlege of such occupations as are unconnected with our own particular line. An Oxford student who knows, by sad experience, that year after year of undiminished application is necessary to the attainment of a knowlege of Greek and Latin, can with difficulty be made to comprehend that sacrifices not much inferior are required in the acquisition of the science of political

political economy. In the same way, few persons, either in or out of trade, are conscious of the complexity, variety, and difficulty of insurance-questions; or of the nice and intricate discussions arising out of the doctrine of Average. To many, indeed, it may be necessary to give a definition of the word, which means a 'contribution made by the different persons interested in a ship and cargo towards the loss of those who have their goods cast overboard for the safety of the remainder.' This contribution, being proportioned to the value of each person's interest, has hence acquired the name of Average; which, in a general sense, denotes 'a medium or mean proportion.' As the principles of money constitute the most difficult part of political economy, the doctrine of Average may, in like manner, be pronounced to be the most intricate department of insurance. Mr. S. has analyzed a variety of points connected with the apportionments due in particular cases, and has been indefatigable in pursuing the subject through all its devious mazes; —through the decisions of our judges, —the voluminous writings of foreigners, —and the not less voluminous acts of our legislature. We applaud his industry in investigating, and his clearness in communicating, the result of his researches: but we must decline to enter on the discussion of questions which present so uninviting an aspect to general readers. As the country of our good friends the Dutch boasts no purling streams nor picturesque cascades, the best written treatise on such a topic as this must be barren of attraction to the reader of taste or imagination. It would puzzle even Johnson himself to render pages, written on the subject of Average, of that description which, in his elevated phraseology, he was wont to term "pages of amenity." A very different estimate of the book before us will, no doubt, be formed by the grave personages who are professedly interested in it; and particularly by the members of the Committee of Lloyd's, whose names figure with due solemnity in the dedication-page.

Mr. Stevens gives the public reason to expect an extensive work on Insurance, but appears to have hitherto delayed it from a consideration of the almost boundless field of research which is necessary to a thorough investigation of such a subject. We shall welcome a publication of that nature, both as tending to supply one of the most important of the blanks mentioned in the beginning of this notice, and as likely to afford us some less forbidding topics of discussion than the unkindly theme of Average.

Art. 26. *History of the Origin and Progress of the Meeting of the three Choirs of Gloucester, Worcester, and Hereford*, and of the Charity connected with it. To which is prefixed, a View of the Condition of the parochial Clergy of this Kingdom, from the earliest Times. By the Rev. Daniel Lysons, M.A., F.R.S., F.S.A. Rector of Rodmarton, in the County of Gloucester. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

That every benefice in England should be made a fit and competent maintenance for an educated minister is an object much to be desired: but we are not sure that the immense property, vested in the ecclesiastical body under the Popish *regime*, ought to be restored to the clergy

clergy of our Protestant church; who, from the altered state of things, are not so numerous as the Romish clergy were, and now bear a small proportion to the population of the kingdom. It is amusing to look back to old times; though, probably, they will afford few hints to guide us in the reformation now so much wanted. To the religious houses, large landed revenues were assigned by royal grants and the donations of superstitious laymen: but have our present parochial clergy a right to the vast property which belonged to the monasteries and abbeys, and was alienated at their suppression? No one can approve the profusion with which grants were made out of it to the favourites of the crown; yet the entire conversion of it to the sole use of the clergy would have been a national grievance *. Because our popish Mary was disposed to restore this property taken by her father from the church, Mr. Lysons speaks in her favour, while he asserts that the church of England has venerated Elizabeth much more than she deserves. He condemns impropriations; not considering that, by uniting the interest of the nobles and the rich commoners with that of the ecclesiastical body, they secure the stability of church-property. From large lay-impropriations, an allowance ought to be made to vicars and curates, so as to afford them a respectable maintenance; and the evils of pluralities and non-residence call for redress: but, before the latter can be altered, those *livings* which are so small that no minister can *live* on them must be augmented, and the number of this description still remains great. 'In 1626, out of nearly 9000 ecclesiastical livings, two-thirds were then under 30l. a-year; 4000 under 20l. and 2000 under 10l. in value.' It is certain that, in consequence of the multitude of small livings, Queen's Anne's bounty for their augmentation must operate slowly.

'It has been calculated,' adds Mr. Lysons, 'that up to the year 1802, including a space of 88 years, this munificent bounty produced the sum of 963,400l.; with which, aided by private benefactions to the amount of about 318,000l. 6407 augmentations were made to poor benefices; yet so inadequate has it proved to the magnitude and extent of the evil, that, under its operation alone, it would now require about 200 years to raise all the poor livings to between 50l.

* As the poor were fed at the gates of the religious houses, and as the suppression of these establishments occasioned the necessity of the poor's rate, the lands which belonged to the monasteries may be considered to be as much the patrimony of the poor as of the church; and those parishes, in which impropriations exist that were formed out of the spoils of the religious houses suppressed by Henry VIII., have as good a plea for claiming them in aid of the poor's rate, as the Establishment can have for the maintenance of its clergy. Burnet, in his History of the Reformation, remarks that the bequests to the monasteries and abbeys were in a great measure for private masses; and at the suppression the question was, whether the lands thus bequeathed should revert to the families of the donors, or escheat to the crown? The Protestant church could have no claim.

and

and 60l. per annum, and not less than eight millions of money would be sufficient, and a period of time not less than 700 years, to raise all those livings which, in the reign of Queen Anne, were under 50l. per annum, up to 100l.'

To accelerate the effect of Queen Anne's bounty, three grants of 100,000l. each have been voted by Parliament in some recent sessions, the last being in 1811. Mr. Lysons considers this relief as inadequate; and, adverting to the decreased value of money, he thinks that the maximum, to which it is proposed to raise the incomes of poor livings, will not now put a married clergyman in tolerable circumstances.

'Supposing it had been thought that 100l., according to the price of the necessaries of life in the reign of Queen Anne, was a sufficient competence for a clergyman's family; upon the same principle of calculation, 200l. would now scarcely suffice, and 250l. is barely equivalent to 100l. *per annum* in the year 1650.'

Out of the incomes of the inferior clergy, no fortunes can be saved for widows and children. To relieve such distressed families, an anniversary sermon has been preached at the Feast of the Sons of the Clergy, ever since the year 1655, with much success; and various other exertions, aided by the donations of individuals, have been made, which are here specified: but all these charities are reported by Mr. L. to be disproportionate to the extent of the distress. His object is to impress the public mind with a sense of the lamentable state of the parochial clergy, and to induce a conviction that this evil arises from impropriations which have robbed 'the patrimony of the church:' but he has not stated those facts which are necessary to ascertain the actual provision that is made for the established clergy. The question to be put and answered in this case should be, What is the amount of the income paid to the whole ecclesiastical body, and among how many is it divided? Mr. L. only tells us that some of the clergy have *too little*; he never hints that any have *too much*. Indeed, a sermon is quoted at p. 124. as excellent, in which the preacher observes, respecting *bishopricks*, that "most of them, and even the most plentiful, are now scarce answerable to the burdens that attend them." Will the Bishops of Durham and Winchester, and many others, underwrite this sentence?

The history of the meeting of the three choirs, in which harmony and charity were so happily united, will at least be interesting in the counties of Gloucester, Worcester, and Hereford, and may afford an example to similar associations in other parts of the kingdom. In the Annals of the music-meetings, Mr. L. minutely details the pieces which were rehearsed, and the performers who were engaged; introducing appropriate eulogies on those individuals who are intitled to musical fame. A list also is inserted of stewards and preachers, with the produce of each year's collection.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 27. *The Power of Divine Grace exemplified in the Insufficiency of the Dispensers of the Gospel*: preached at the Gravel-pit Meeting-

Meeting-house, Hackney, June 30. 1813, before the Patrons and Students of the Protestant Dissenting Academy at Homerton. By Robert Stevenson. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Conder.

An apposite anecdote is one of the most agreeable modes of illustration; and Mr. Stevenson no doubt meant to enliven his discourse by a story of this kind: he therefore observes, (p. 7.), 'We are told of a Spanish ambassador, who, when he was shewn the treasury of St. Mark, in Venice, tried with his cane to find the bottom of the chests in which the wealth was deposited; and upon being asked the reason of this action, he replied, "My master's treasures differ from yours, in that they have no bottom, as yours have,"—alluding to the mines of Mexico and Peru. With far more propriety may it be said of the treasures of the Gospel, that they have no bottom.' Unluckily for the preacher, though the remark which he appends to this anecdote be very just, he destroys the idea that the Gospel is a bottomless treasure, when he proceeds to describe it as placed in a vessel with a bottom to it; since wealth inclosed in a vase, or jar, resembles the chests of St. Mark rather than the mines of Mexico. If, however, Mr. S. has introduced metaphors which clash, he offers some pertinent observations: but we do not think that he afforded the students of 'Homerton Old College' a specimen of the plain style of writing or preaching, when he expressed a period of five years by the periphrasis of 'five annual revolutions of the great solar orb.'

Art. 28. *Preached in the Parish Church of Sanderstead, Surrey, Jan.* 13. 1814, *being the Day appointed for a General Thanksgiving.* By the Rev. John Courtney, A.M. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway.

After a long comment on the Psalm (Ps. lxxv.) from which the text is taken, the preacher adverts to the circumstances of the times, and congratulates his readers on the happy changes which have recently occurred. He views with satisfaction the confederation lately formed *against* 'the Self-constituted arbiter of Europe,' and rejoices in having 'armies which were once arrayed *against* us, now united *with us*, to restore liberty and peace to long suffering nations.'

Mr. C. foresaw the restoration to France of the family which so long ruled over it; and, therefore, while he was thankful for the posture of events at the time at which this sermon was preached, he anticipated the day on which his hearers should be once more assembled, to celebrate the completion of our happiness in the establishment of universal peace and harmony. We rejoice to add that he was a true prophet. The peace which he anticipated in January has, thanks to Divine Providence! now reached us. May it be a lasting peace, cemented by arrangements mutually beneficial to France and Great Britain!

Art. 29. *Religion the noblest Employment, and the immediate Concern of the Aged:* preached at the Jews' Chapel, December 14. 1813. By Daniel Tyerman. 8vo. 1s. Burton. 1814.

We cannot think that the case of the aged has been so much overlooked by preachers as Mr. Tyerman supposes. Blair, we recollect, has a beautiful sermon "On the Duties and Consolations of the Aged;"

Aged;" and we have often met with printed advice to grey hairs. If, however, Mr. T.'s exertions, in behalf of those who are in the vale of years, be not absolutely necessary, they are well intended, and "the old disciple" may be benefited by them: but what hope can we have in addressing 'the many who consume their youth in sin and slothfulness, and continue to old age unemployed in the work of God?' "Can the Ethiopian change his skin?" — "Religion," says Blair, "must be made the guide of life before we can have recourse to it as a refuge from sorrow."

Art. 30. Occasioned by the sudden Death of Mr. Robert Strange, of Thorndon, July 25. 1813. By L. Blakeney, A.M., Curate of Thorndon and Beddingfield, Suffolk. 4to. 2s. Wilson.

This is both a funeral and a farewell sermon. On the subject of death, it is almost impossible to say any thing new: but it is easy to be serious, and to exhort to a suitable preparation. Mr. Blakeney is not deficient in eloquence on this occasion: but, as nothing more is reported of the deceased than 'that he was *honest, social, friendly*, and *humane*, with some faults, and perhaps vices,' the preacher might as well have suffered him to have been carried to his grave without the parade of a funeral oration, or at least without the subsequent parade of printing it. — Who will be interested or edified by such a memoir?

CORRESPONDENCE.

'The Author of the description of *the Retreat* begs leave to inform the Editor of the Monthly Review, that no part of the building described in the above-mentioned work has been *destroyed by fire*. He will be obliged to the Editor to correct the mis-statement on this subject in the last Number of the Review; which has doubtless arisen from the calamity alluded to having recently occurred in a neighbouring institution, the *York Lunatic Asylum*.

'*York*, 4th month, 20th, 1814.'

In answer to Mr. Grant's polite letter, we have to state that an account of his Grammar is only waiting an opportunity for insertion.

Mr. Berwick's obliging letter is received. We wish him success.

*** The APPENDIX to this volume of the Review will be published on the first of June, with the Review for May.

THE

APPENDIX

TO THE

SEVENTY-THIRD VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Histoire abrégée de la Littérature Grecque*, &c.; *i. e.* An abridged History of Greek Literature, from its Origin to the taking of Constantinople by the Turks. By F. SCHŒLL. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1813. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 4s.

GREEK literature is a topic so often introduced, and so repeatedly investigated, that we are almost inclined to turn from those who beckon into this old though interesting path, under a fear of being annoyed with trivial dust. Fabricius, in his fourteen quartos, published between 1705 and 1708, and intitled *Bibliotheca Græca*, has stored the fruit of forty years of classical study, and carefully brought together notices and fragments of almost every antient writer who has not found a separate editor. His erudition drew alike from the fountains of antiquity and the cisterns of modern criticism; and if a want of method and arrangement renders his work inconvenient for consultation, this defect may in some degree be remedied by using the edition undertaken in 1790 by *Harles*, to which indexes and references are attached, and in which the incessant supplements of Fabricius are melted into a continuous text. *Harles* demonstrated his qualification for this task by an excellent *Introductio in historiam Linguæ Græcæ*, published in 1778, and afterward dilated into four volumes.

It is not, however, so much to these two bibliographers as to M. *Schaaf*, a professor in the high school of Magdeburg, and

author of a German *Encyclopædia of Classical Antiquities*, (2 vols. 8vo., 1806,) that the present writer is indebted for the plan of his work; which has not for its object to assist the learned, but to guide young persons who are in the higher classes of schools or colleges, and who wish for a general view of the treasury to which they are acquiring the keys. Men of the world, also, may like to be reminded of facts which their habitual occupations have rendered less familiar, but to the recollection of which they cling with the affection of early association.

M. *Schaaf*'s work treats both of Greek and Roman antiquities, and is divided into four heads, which are pursued through six periods. These periods are adopted by M. Schoell; who, omitting all that concerns mythology and Roman literature, transplants the rest of M. *Schaaf*'s information into this French epitome. *Fuhrman's Manual of Classical Literature* has also been consulted; and, as far as the Greek Scriptures and the history of the Alexandrian version are concerned, *Eichhorn's Kritische Schriften*, four volumes of which were reviewed in our xxiiid Volume, N.S., p. 481. * Among the sources, also, employed by the present author, may be reckoned *Hænlein's Manual of the New Testament*, which supplied some literary history of those books to which the toil of *Eichhorn* has not yet descended.

A melancholy tribute of gratitude and admiration, which every critical student of the Scriptures will re-echo, is paid at the close of the preface to the memory of the learned *Griesbach*, who lately died at Jena, in which university he was the most eminent professor. His profound comparative knowlege of manuscripts and editions, and the singular sagacity and impartiality of his verbal criticism, have given to his text of the Christian canon an oracular value. The orthodox and the heretic bow alike to the unprejudiced indifference of his dogmatism; and, where inspiration appears not to guide, *Griesbach* is now allowed to determine.

The introduction sketches a general plan of the work, and defines the six periods which are to be contemplated in order. The first is called the *fabulous* period, and terminates at the taking of Troy. Oracles and hymns of uncertain date form the only reliques of the mythologic age, of which Orpheus was the most celebrated poet.—The second period is extended from the taking of Troy to the legislation of Solon; that is, from 1180 to 594 before Christ. — The third proceeds to the death

* Vol. v. was published in 1804, and Vol. vi. in 1811, but did not then find their way to us.

of

of Alexander the Great; or from 594 to 336 before Christ. — The fourth is extended from the death of Alexander to the destruction of Corinth, that is, from 336 to 146 before Christ. The literary splendor of European Greece was eclipsed by that event; if Athens was the school, Corinth was the market, for talent; and Alexandria became henceforwards the seat of Greek literature. — The fifth period extends from the destruction of Corinth to the accession of Constantine; comprehending the exact history of the revolution in metaphysical, moral, and literary opinion, which was effected throughout the Roman world by the Alexandrian school: — from 146 before Christ to 306 after Christ. — The sixth period, which involves the progress of a melancholy declension, reaches from the accession of Constantine to the taking of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453.

M. Schœll then proceeds to consider each period in detail. On the first he is so concise, that it was scarcely worth while to make it into a separate subdivision. He places in it the name of Musæus, (not the author of the Loves of Hero and Leander, but an elder poet of the school of Orpheus,) which is perhaps a mere epithet of titular praise; another name, or denomination, of Hesiod; for to this elder Musæus are ascribed a Theogony, certain agricultural traditions, ὑποθηκαι, or precepts, a war of the Titans whence the shield of Hercules seems to be an extract, some fables, hymns, and oracles.

A curious dissertation on epic poetry opens the second period. The Rhapsodists (ῥαψῳδοι) of Ionia are described, we know not on what authority; and among them, it is pretended, originated Homer, whose native place is here supposed to be Chios. In our recent account of Nichols's Anecdotes of the last century, (Vol. lxxii. p. 278.) we ventured to suggest the hypothesis that Homer is but the assumed or acquired name of Thales, the friend of Lycurgus; with whose era, and circumstances, and character, every phænomenon of the poetry curiously corresponds. We conceive the Rhapsodists to have been rather a result, than a cause, of the Iliad: its celebrity having first enabled these reciters to earn a maintenance by repeating its parts. *Wolff's* Prolegomena to the edition of 1794 aim at novelty, but are rather ingenious than satisfactory.

Lycurgus was the first editor of the collective poems of Homer, and had visited the plain of Troy in company with his friend Thales. Aristotle was the next conspicuous editor, and is supposed to have used the pruning knife freely in his text of the edition of the Casket. From Zenodotus of Ephesus, after he became librarian at the Serapeum, issued the third celebrated edition of the Iliad, which was multiplied in many transcripts but the edition which has descended to us is still posterior, a

is the text of the Jew Aristarchus, a successor of Zenodotus in his office at the Serapeum; which text his contemporaries censured as too severely castigated, and too roughly reformed *. The object of these successive editors was not, as it has been in the case of our Shakspeare, to attain everywhere the original reading, but to bring the poem perpetually nearer to the idea of a perfect work of art. Where they could mend the rhythm of a line, or direct better the aim of an epithet, they altered freely. In all the Alexandrian publications of the works of the European Greeks, some liberties of this class were taken; and hence in Greek literature that union, or alternation, of honest nakedness and refined propriety, which charms while it surprises. The purple patch in the old garment is often visible in these Alexandrian editions.

The life of Homer, ascribed to Herodotus, being quoted by no European Greek, and by many Alexandrian philologers, betrays its African origin. Aulus Gellius mentions a life of Homer ascribed to Plutarch, but his citations do not occur in the biography which we possess. Proclus wrote a third life of Homer; and an anonymous one was edited at Madrid by Yriarte. Of the antient commentators of Homer, Eustathius is the best; of the modern, Koeppen of Hanover. — The Batrachomyomachia, a sort of parody of Homer's manner, is here ascribed to Pigres of Caria, the brother of the Artemisia who built so noble a mausoleum to her husband. To us it appears to wear marks of a later date. Who quotes it first? This is in literary history a very essential point to ascertain.

During the third period, the number of literary artists became so considerable, that M. Schœll has subdivided them into classes, and given separately the history of each class. 1. Among the *gnomic* or sententious poets, the compilers of moral sentiments adapted for recollection by their metrical conciseness, are reckoned Solon, Theognis, Phocylides, and Pythagoras. These ethic teachers answer to our Ray, and the other collectors of English proverbs. — 2. Among the *didactic* poets are enumerated Xenophanes, Parmenides, and Empedocles. — 3. Among the *lyric* poets, Stesichorus, Ibicus, Anacreon, Hipponax, Simonides, Pindar, Lasus, Melanippides, Bacchylides, Philoxenes, and some others. A character of Anacreon is extracted from Manso's Sketches of the chief poets of all ages. — A fourth and long section regards the dramatic writers of this period. Thespis, Æschylus,

* Homer is almost the only writer among the European Greeks who no where alludes to impure love: an omission which is supposed to result from the castrations of Aristarchus.

Sophocles,

Sophocles, Euripides, and Cheremon, pass in successive review; and their characters are given in the words of M. *Schlegel*, who has composed a critical work on the drama, intitled *Ueber Dramatische Kunst und Literatur*. His panegyric of Sophocles is extracted, whom he considers as the most enviable of all human beings; having united in an extraordinary degree the blessings of health, of personal beauty, of accomplished education, of a liberal competency, and of exalted genius so exerted as to attract the enthusiastic worship of his countrymen; and unfortunate only in the loss of his first wife, which induced him to marry again, and occasioned in the children of the first marriage a jealousy of his partiality to those of the second. Of all the Pagan writers, the morality of Sophocles approaches nearest to our own; which shews that this is in a great degree the work of real refinement.

M. *Schlegel* is by no means so fortunate in seizing the character of Euripides. Æschylus, like *Schiller*, impresses something of his own heroic soul on all his personages; and Sophocles, like *Racine*, impresses something of his own correct sensibility on all his personages: the poet himself speaks through each several mask: but Euripides, like Shakspeare, seldom peeps through the canvas of the scene. With him it is the creature represented, (whether hero or cyclops,) and not the poet, who talks on the stage. M. *Schlegel* is at liberty to prefer the heroic and the beautiful to the natural: but the essence of dramatic skill, as his countryman *Lessing* might have taught him, must for ever consist in animation, not in personation. Now this is remarkably the gift of Euripides. An audience will applaud the *Alzire* of *Voltaire*, and enjoy philosophic dialogues in the mouths of Peruvians; and no doubt *Voltaire* has something better to say than any of the Peruvians would have had. In didactic effect, the poem may gain by inserting such premature philosophy, and it may display more intellect in the writer: but the writer is not the business of his scene; and the characters are then only true to nature, when each moves by an individual, not all by a common, impulse. He is but the exhibitor of a puppet-shew, who lends his own voice in turn to each of the waxen figures on the stage: the dramatist should apply the torch of Prometheus, and put each in motion with inherent vitality. Euripides does this more completely than either Æschylus or Sophocles; as *Goethe* does it more completely than either *Schiller* or *Lessing*. M. *Schlegel* can perceive all the value of *Goethe's* sympathy with his personages; why is he so inconsistent as to overlook the analogous versatility of Euripides?

The comic and the satiric, or farcical, productions of the Greek theatre are next reviewed.

Then follows a subdivision which treats of prosaic composition under its several leading forms.

First is noticed the Æsopian fables, of which Hesiod is supposed to have made the earliest collection. Great additions to our knowlege of the history of fable-writing are due to M. *Furia*, the keeper of the Laurentian library at Florence; who in 1809 published, from various manuscripts, fables of the antients hitherto inedited.

Secondly, occurs the list of historians. Cadmus of Miletus is mentioned as the oldest of all the Greek annalists, having written a chronicle of his native city in so marvellous a taste, that wonderful stories were proverbially called Milesian tales. Dionysius, of the same place, is said to have undertaken the first universal history; and the sources of Homer's fictions are thought to have existed in the literature of Miletus. Hecatæus of that place produced a geographical work intitled Περιοδος Γης, or a Tour of the Earth. Xanthus wrote about Lydia, and Hippys about Sicily. Hellanicus of Mitylene described Greece in general, and Pherecydes detailed Athens in particular. Acusilaus of Argos composed royal genealogies. These writers, whom we know only by reputation, are believed to have preceded Herodotus. He is the true father of history among the Greeks; and the more carefully he is studied, the more trust-worthy appears his local observation. — Thucydides is next characterized, and then Xenophon. Of Ctesias, we have only a forged fragment preserved by Photius. Philistus of Syracuse flattered the tyrant of his country. Theopompus, a continuator of Thucydides and Xenophon, left a work the loss of which is to be lamented: Cornelius Nepos made great use of his writings. Ephorus of Cuma, began an universal history, which was continued by Diyllus of Athens, and Psaon of Platea. Androtio wrote on Attica. Heraclides gave a philosophy of history, intitled Περι Πολιτειων.

The geographers occur next. The Periplus of Hanno is here defended as genuine, against the rash attack of Dodwell. Scylax is an author of uncertain date: but *Manhert* has adduced convincing arguments to shew that he flourished before Alexander, because he describes Tyre as extant, and the site of Alexandria as vacant; and after Pericles, because he describes the wall of Athens, which that patron of artists completed. Pytheas of Marseilles is also dissected: his apparently marvellous narrations, when placed in a proper point of view, describe real and familiar phænomena of the seas at the mouth of the Baltic. The idea of the antients that the earth is a

great

great animal, and that the tide is occasioned by its respiration, was familiar to Pytheas; who talks of approaching the *lungs* of ocean, and of seeing its *breath* (a thick fog) at the orifice.

A fourth subdivision gives the history of eloquence. Gorgias, Antiphon, Andocides, Lysias, Isocrates, Isæus, Æschines, Lycurgus, Demosthenes, Hyperides, Dynarchus, and Alcidamas, are here enumerated. Why is Pericles forgotten? Certain epistles, such as those ascribed to Phalaris, exist under names which flourished at this period: but the epistles themselves are mostly Alexandrian forgeries.

Philosophy occupies another and very extensive division. The endless catalogue of names, from Pythagoras and the seven sages to the school of Socrates, shews the great value which was attributed by the Greeks to what may be called the *disinterested* culture of the mind. Among the medical writers, only Hippocrates merits much distinction.

The fourth period, which comprehends less than two centuries, and extends only from the accession of Alexander to the taking of Corinth, is either not so rich in great names, or not so dexterously and industriously marshalled, as the preceding period.

Speaking of Apollonius of Rhodes, the author notices a passage (lib. iii. v. 761.) in which the violent love of Medea is described as occasioning a pain in the back of her head. This is here said to be an observation from nature, and to be strikingly confirmed by the remarks in Dr. Gall's Craniology, which have ascertained the cerebellum to be the seat of amorous recollections!

Prose becomes a more important department than poetry, in the literature of an advanced and refined people; and grammar and criticism become the most important departments of prose, when, as in the case of Alexandria, a transplanted dialect is to be preserved from declension, and the literature of an old country to be re-edited and commented. Indeed, all those metaphysical inquiries, which had amused the philosophers of European Greece, might fitly be turned over to critical grammarians; since they are mostly disputes about words, and comparisons of interior realities. *Grammatic* studies were understood at Alexandria to comprehend all that we call philology; and that branch of glossology, which we term grammar, was called *grammatistic*.

In noticing the historians of Alexander the Great, M. Schœll makes considerable use of *Saint Croix's Examen*. Eloquence, Philosophy, Geography, and Medicine, are reviewed in their former order. After the taking of Corinth, Greek literature ceased to be independent, and passed under the influence

fluence of the Romans. It communicated, indeed, something of its native ferment, and at first convulsed the Roman world with the seditious and tyrannicidal spirit which it inspired: but gradually it imbibed a Roman sedateness and decorum, in which it shewed less than it before manifested of life, sincerity, and nature.

In the fifth period is included the history of Greek literature from the time of its being the slave, until the time of its becoming the proprietor, of the Romans. It undertook the inculcation of an oriental philosophy and religion; and, by means of the institutions for public instruction, which the Jews opened and affiliated throughout the Roman empire, it at length achieved a complete conquest, and, under Constantine, established a Greek metropolis and a Christian sovereignty and hierarchy.

During the early part of this period, historians occur, such as Plutarch, Arrian, and Appian, who contributed in nothing to the propagation of the Alexandrian aim at ascendancy; and other writers occur, such as Lucian, who tended to resist it: but the general drift of the Greek writers was to supersede paganism, among the cultivated, by a metaphysical philosophy, termed by German critics the *New Platonic*; and, among the vulgar, by a legendary historiography, of which the catholic acts of saints preserve many important specimens. The one formed the esoteric, and the other fashioned the exoteric, creed of the community.

Of the Alexandrian revolution in human sentiment, the author undertakes a very extensive and curious account, but not under the name of ecclesiastical history, although abounding with those literary particulars which are usually recorded in it. He appears doubtful whether to consider the change as marking the progress of knowlege, and terminating in the establishment of truth; or to class it among those variations in the atmosphere of mind, which hid with glittering clouds the dimmer but eternal stars. As a branch of the history of human culture, and as a sketch of the orbit of public illumination, he deems it worth every detail of attention, and appears to view with complacency the effort, if not the result. His epitome of this period begins with the second volume, and is divided into seven chapters.

In chap. i. he professes to treat of those books of the Old Testament which originated in the Greek language. Hebrew literature being no part of his topic, it is only when the Jewish records pass into Greek that they become objects of his attention.

The

'The Hebrew literature of the Jews,' says M. Schœll, 'is remarkable for a character of originality which distinguishes it from that of every other nation. It came to a pause during the captivity at Babylon. Under a foreign sky, in a nation whose manners, religion, and knowlege were new to the people calling themselves "the people of God;" the Jews adopted another way of seeing, and a religious philosophy which blunted the original impression that was hitherto stamped on all their writings. Their ideas concerning God and his providence underwent a change; and to those notions which Moses had implanted, were attached the systems received at Babylon and in Assyria, where the *light* was adored as a direct and conscious emanation of Deity. They also acquired the doctrines of Demonology, or of various intermediate beings between God and man; who were henceforth superadded to their antient creed.'

Alexander's conquests carried the use of the Greek language far inland into Asia, and made Palestine, whose sea-ports were a thoroughfare for the supplies required by his army, a place of much resort for Hellenistic Jews. The taking of Tyre, and the foundation of Alexandria, transplanted a vast colony of Syrian Jews into Ægypt; and these again found themselves compelled to adopt the Greek language as the medium of intercourse. After the death of Alexander, Palestine fell to the lot of a Greek sovereign; and the continual presence of a garrison of that nation at Jerusalem gave so great a currency there to the Greek language, that, in the time of the Maccabees, it had already become the tongue of sacred literature; and, in the time of Herod Agrippa, the courts of justice conducted their pleadings, and the popular preachers addressed their auditors, in Greek.

In our lxixth Vol., N.S., p. 491., we shortly sketched a history of the Ptolemaic dynasty. The marriage of Ptolemy Epiphanes with the daughter of Antiochus King of Syria was accompanied by the surrender of Palestine to the Ptolemies. This event supplied to the government of Ægypt an opportunity and a motive for examining the Jewish laws; and it was this prince who employed Aristobulus, the tutor of his son Philometor, to ask of the high-priest at Jerusalem a copy of the sacred books. Aristobulus, apparently with the help of Onias, a son of the high-priest whom he induced to settle at Alexandria and to open a Greek synagogue there, undertook to translate these Jewish Scriptures, and published as his first delivery (*livraison*) the five books concerning Moses, under the hitherto unknown appellation of *the Pentateuch*. This book Aristobulus dedicated to Ptolemy Philometor: to whom also the book of Esther is inscribed in the epilogue:— during his reign, therefore, the Greek version of the Scriptures was carried through the historical books, and through them only.

Aristobulus

Aristobulus was librarian, or abbot, of the Serapeum: and, in virtue of his office, he could employ the seventy inmates of that institution to make seventy contemporaneous copies of his version,—hence, it is thought, denominated the Septuagint. Indeed, the usual way, at Alexandria, of publishing an edition of any book, was for one person to read it aloud verse by verse, or sentence by sentence; and for each of his seventy scribes, or whatever was the number employed on the occasion, to write after the person who dictated. The writers began each sentence together, and waited for each other at the conclusion. The legendaries observe that the seventy coadjutors, who were employed to bring out the Greek translation of the Pentateuch, were severally stationed in separate cells, and severally wrote a separate interpretation; and that all the interpretations were alike, word for word, and comma for comma: they were all inspired by the holy breath of the dictating priest, who, according to Philo, was stationed at apartments in the Pharos island.

Over Cleopatra, the widow of his pupil, Aristobulus retained a great ascendancy. After the death of her first husband, she married his younger brother and successor Ptolemy Physcon, who carried still farther than his predecessor the marked predilection of the court for the Jews. Josephus says that this Queen and her husband vested the whole administration in Jewish hands; and they authorised Aristobulus to expel from the Serapeum all the Pagan philosophers, in order to concentrate the patronage which was attached to that institution, in Jewish priests. Hitherto, sovereigns had rewarded individual flattery, but with little attention to the abstract opinions of the flatterer. This is the first attempt in European history (if Alexandria may be classed as forming a part of that public on which it operated) at the systematic direction of opinion itself;—at the patronage or endowment, by the state, of a peculiar system of philosophy. It was the Pharisaic Judaism, not the Sadducean,—that which had been tinctured at Babylon, not that which was native among the Jews,—to which a preference was given by Aristobulus. The great success of the Alexandrian college, in superinducing its successive opinions on the Roman world, seems to prove that the sentiments of the people are naturally transient; and that, though apparently obedient to popular writers, they do in fact depend in *the long run* on the institutions of the sovereign.

At what period, and under whose superintendance, the version of the prophetic books was completed, is unknown: it seems probable that Aristarchus continued the enterprize of Aristobulus, and that all the Old Testament had been translated before

before the time of Philo, except the Ecclesiastes, which is the only book of the Old Testament that he does not quote, and which contains marks of a posterior date of origin. In imitation of the translated Jewish Scriptures, many new compositions were formed at Alexandria originally in Greek. Some of these, as the Ecclesiastes, were afterward translated into the sacred language; others remain to us only in Greek. The books of which no Hebrew original now exists are called, by an ill-chosen name, *apocryphal*, among the Protestants, but are placed in the catholic canon by the council of Trent. Some of them are of Jewish origin; and some are posterior to the Christian æra, and were written by Christians. The author enumerates and criticizes them individually, in the order of the foreign Bibles, which differs from our own. — I. *The Ecclesiasticus.* This work is here referred (with *Eichhorn*) to about two hundred years before Christ: but it is perhaps of later date; and we should interpret the *thirty-eighth* year of the preface, during which the translator was in Ægypt, as the thirty-eighth year of the battle of Actium, by which æra the Alexandrians dated. A Ptolemy Evergetes was then titular king at Alexandria, the son of Juba by Selene, a daughter of Anthony and Cleopatra. — II. *The Wisdom.* This book is clearly an original work, by the translator of the Ecclesiasticus. It mentions the crucifixion of Christ (ch. ii. v. 12—21.) in a manner that favours the suspicion of its being of Christian origin. — III. *The Books of Maccabees.* The first of these books appears to have been originally written in Hebrew by a well-informed annalist: it contains the history of Palestine during a period of about forty years, and displays much local information and good sense. The second book of Maccabees, on the contrary, is but an ill-made abridgment of a legendary work written by Jason of Cyrene. — IV. *The Book of Judith* is here undervalued. It no doubt narrates a true history, which happened shortly before the siege of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar. — V. *The Books of Esdras.* These books are of a distinct date: for the first book is quoted by Josephus, and the second book quotes the Apocalypse. This second book is probably that paraphrase or exposition of the seventy weeks of Daniel, which Eusebius (l. vi. ch. 6.) ascribes to one Jude. — VI. *Baruch.* This book is here said to contain internal evidence of its having been conceived in Greek; and the epistle of Jeremy is especially free from Hebraisms. Yet these may have been a manuscript original in the library of the Temple of Jerusalem, which was thus dilated by the person employed to translate it. — VII. *Tobit.* According to M. Schnell, this is a pious romance, not founded on historical fact. — VIII. *The Song of the three holy Children.*

Children. It is probable that musical solemnities, not differing widely from our oratorios, were on festival days exhibited in the Temple of Jerusalem, and that this song was composed for such musical accompaniment. — IX. *Bell and the Dragon.* This fragment is especially remarkable for the wide difference between the Septuagint text, and that of Theodotion: the latter has retouched his original, and endeavoured to give it greater probability. — X. *Susanna;* a work which was originally composed in Greek, for it includes Greek paranomasias: it can therefore have no historical authority. — XI. *The Rest of Esther.* This was extant in the time of Josephus, who quotes it: the writer is unknown.

In his second chapter, M. Schœll's object is to enumerate the various antient translators of the Scriptures. From the Septuagint, about which he countenances some errors, he passes on to the version of Origen, and gives the bibliography of modern editions of his Polyglot. Aquila, Symmachus, Theodotion, and the unknown or anonymous translators, are successively characterized; and the Hebrew, the Syriac, the Samaritan, and the Hellenistic texts, mentioned by Origen, are explained. A final paragraph relates the publication, by *Villoison* and *Ammon* of Göttingen, of a Greek translation found in the library of Saint Mark at Venice. *Villoison* began the work at Strasburg in 1784, and *Ammon* completed it at Erlangen: the manuscript is supposed to have been acquired about the time of Charlemagne.

Chapter iii. treats of the New Testament. This denomination, Καινη Διαθηκη, must have been in use in Saint Paul's time; since he employs (2 Corinthians, iii. 14.) the antithetic term, Παλαια Διαθηκη. Even the author of 1 Maccabees already regarded (i. 57.) the Bible as a Διαθηκη; though it be difficult to decide whether the word is not better rendered *Dispensation*, or *Covenant*, or *Bequest* *, than Testament. It would be curious to know what books Saint Paul can have intended to designate by the term *New Testament*. Granting that Mark, and Luke, and the epistle of James, were perhaps extant in his time, they were not yet collected, and made into a body of church-reading, into any separate canon. Does he apply this term to all the *Greek* Scriptures in contradistinction to the *Hebrew?* Does this seem probable; and, in this case, did Saint Paul's New Testament include the Wisdom, the Ecclesiasticus, the Maccabees, and whatever other of the writings now called apocryphal he deemed proper to be read in churches? The word apocryphal, ἀποκρυφος,

* The author of Hebrews applies the word as we should apply the word *bequest.*

 signifies

signifies *hidden*, or concealed, and originally designated those summaries of doctrine which the priesthood reserved for their own use, and communicated only to the chosen few among the laity. That the apostles carried about with them such *monita secreta*, that they had an exoteric doctrine for the vulgar, and a less mystical and less marvellous system for their esoteric class, respectively compared in Hebrews with *milk* and strong *meat*, has been ingeniously maintained by *Bahrdt*; who considers the *Wisdom* and *Ecclesiasticus* as having exclusively formed the private canon, or apocryphal library, of the apostolic teachers. It is certain that they all quote these two books with a singular veneration. In this view of things, there would be some critical propriety in returning to apostolic usage, and in classing all the Greek Scriptures as parts of the New Testament; and the moral code embodied in the *Wisdom* and *Ecclesiasticus*, as its only apocryphal or private portion.

By the time of Eusebius, these denominations had shifted their original ground: the Christian dispensation was become opposed to the Mosaic, and the New Covenant was made to signify the Christian Scriptures. These are enumerated by Eusebius in their present order, in his Ecclesiastical History; (l. iii. c. 25.) admitting, however, that concerning the epistle of *Jude* and the *Apocalypse* some doubts were entertained; and characterizing as νοθοι, or spurious, various legendary but pious writings which circulated during the infancy of the church. Under the unclassical title of *apocryphal*, Fabricius collected these legendary scriptures: his *Protevangelium Jacobi* may be apocryphal, but the rest of his collection is spurious.

M. Schœll proceeds in the ensuing section to consider an hypothesis, originally started by *Lessing*, evolved by *Eichhorn*, and republished with important illustrations in this country by Dr. Herbert Marsh, that the first three gospels are separate epitomes of a common original. Should we coincide with M. Schœll in adopting this supposition, or think, with *Storr*, that, by assuming the Gospel of Mark to be the original, all the phænomena can be explained without the degrading and derogatory conjecture of an extinct document? If Luke, assisted by one set of additional memoirs, undertook first to enlarge Mark; and if Matthew, assisted by another set of unemployed materials, undertook it in the second instance, and after the siege of Jerusalem; all their coincidences and variations assume a natural position.

Too faithful to the guidance of *Eichhorn*, the present author attributes great importance and value to the gospel of Marcion; which, he thinks, contrary to the express testimony of Tertullian, may have been prior to Luke. The Diatessaron of Tatian, and

and other early fragments of sacred history, are also examined; and a catalogue is given of the narrations which are supposed to have been contained in the original gospel.

The apostolic epistles are next considered. Much difficulty attaches to the received theory of *Hebrews*. This epistle is posterior to John's gospel, of which it quotes the proem; it is posterior to every one of Paul's epistles, of which it quotes the principal, and the latest, that is the second letter to Timothy; and it is posterior to the Acts of the Apostles, which, though completed before the martyrdom of Paul, can scarcely have sooner obtained circulation. These circumstances, added to the discrepancy of style from that of Paul, authorize the assignment of it to some other person. It is marked by a peculiar veneration for angels, and by a sedulous annunciation of Jesus in his character of high-priest: — such ideas are symptomatic of a follower of John's baptism. At the close of the epistle, the author announces himself as about to travel in company with Timothy, (xiii. 23.) whom he employs as his secretary. This last circumstance indicates the person who inherited Saint Paul's sway over the entire Christian church, namely Apollos.

Chapter iv. discusses the antient translations of the Bible; and much curious literature is here brought together, which some member of the Bible-society might translate and print apart with great propriety.

Chapter v. continues the view of the principal editions of the Bible, both manuscript and printed: the sixth treats of Latin and French translations posterior to the Reformation; and the seventh gives an account of the fathers of the church, and of other Greek ecclesiastical writers prior to the Reformation. — A synoptical table follows, of all the Greek writers who are mentioned in this work; and then a chronological and historical index of the principal persons and facts treated in the foregoing pages. — An appendix discusses the character of Demosthenes, derived from the German of *Heeren*; and a second Appendix relates to the Sophists. These dissertations are affixed with the view of remedying some defects in the earlier part of the book.

These closely printed volumes are wholly eclectic; they contain no original matter: they are derived, partly by abbreviation, partly by systematic selection, from German works of authority, which are too voluminous to be read through at Paris, or are inaccessible there from the difficulty of the language. Like all eclectic books, and systems of philosophy, they include inconsistencies; and they teach in one page, on the authority of one man, that which in another page they unconsciously

sciously undermine or controvert, on the authority of another man. In a literary age, those second-hand minds and patch-work intellects abound, who fancy that it is practicable to agree with celebrated men in every line of inquiry; and who miss those delicate links of the ideal concatenation, which render certain opinions for ever incompatible. The homogeneity of a mind which digests knowlege for itself is greatly preferable to the mere accumulation even of precious materials: but, if we observe in this author some want of that plastic principle which resists incoherence, we perceive also in him a vast fund of information, and an interesting range of study. When we add that, according to the title-page, the writer and the publisher are one and the same, the fraternity of booksellers may be proud of such a member of their body. To those who do not read German, or who have not recently imported the more celebrated writings of that country, his labours will supply welcome knowlege and fresh instruction.

Art. II. *Manuscrits de la Bibliothèque de Lyon*, &c.; *i. e.* The Manuscripts of the Library at Lyons; or Notices respecting their Antiquity, their Authors, the Subjects of them; the Character of their Writing, &c. Preceded by a History of the Antient Libraries of Lyons, and an Historical Essay concerning Manuscripts in general. By Ant. Fr. Delandine, Librarian of Lyons, &c. 8vo. 3 Vols. Paris and Lyons. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2l. 2s. sewed.

The distinguished author of this critical catalogue published in 1787 the first volume of a *Bibliothèque historique et raisonnée des Historiens de Lyons*; which displayed the rare union of minute antiquarian searching erudition, with a tasteful sense of proportion and a philosophical strength of judgment. M. Delandine was deputed by the people of Lyons to the Constituent Assembly of France, and meritoriously laid aside his local for his national duties. Again returned to the tranquil shade of private life, he accepted the office of superintendant of the public library in his native city, and now undertakes to marshal and display the literary treasures of its important collection of books and manuscripts. His work opens with a Dissertation on the antient Libraries of the place, and particularly on the City-library, which was destined eventually to absorb the other principal repositories. These were the Library of Isle-Barbe, that of *John Grollier*, the Trinity-college Library, the Lawyer's Library, that of *Peter Adamoli*, those of the suppressed monasteries, and the existing public library. Details, which may be read with amusement, but which it would scarcely be interest-

ing to transcribe, are given concerning these tributary sources, which have filled the present noble reservoir by their successive confluence.

Next occurs an historical essay on Manuscripts, which is divided into six sections: treating on the material of manuscripts, as cloth, leather, papyrus, or paper; on the antiquity of manuscripts, and the means of ascertaining it; on the ornaments of manuscripts, which often throw light on the history of art and of costume; on the price of manuscripts in different ages and countries; on some remarkable manuscripts in the libraries of Europe; and on the manuscripts deposited in the library of Lyons, of which a critical list is given. Each of these chapters contains curious information and amusing anecdotes.

The author observes that the use of cotton-paper preceded the use of paper made from rags; and that it was first manufactured in Sicily, where King Ruggiero granted a patent to a family of cotton-paper makers in the year 1102. The oldest remaining document on cotton-paper is said to be a letter dated in 1178, preserved at Verona. Of vellum-paper the first specimen is said to occur in Baskerville's Virgil, p. 25—224.

Among the Swedish manuscripts, is noticed a medical treatise of Johannes Arderus of Slewark, who wrote in 1412, and specifically described the venereal disease, which was once supposed to have been of American origin.

Among the British manuscripts, those of London and Oxford are indeed specified, but the truly important collection of oriental manuscripts at the India-house is not mentioned. Yet any addition which can still be made to human knowlege, by editing and translating the manuscript-literature of the world, is chiefly to be expected from that quarter.

The catalogue of the manuscripts preserved at Lyons begins with the oriental. A Maimonides may be distinguished among the Hebrew, a Koran among the Arabic, and a Gulistan among the Persian manuscripts: but the great curiosity of the library is a manuscript, No. 23., in an unknown tongue. It was sent, through the hands of the senator *Lanjuinais*, to *Langlès* and to *Sacy*, who could not pronounce concerning its *patria*. It was then transmitted, by M. *Castera*, to Dr. *Hager* at Pavia, and to *Fra Paolino*, at Rome, and still no decisive information could be obtained. The inference, however, seems to be that it is a manuscript from the island of Ceylon, written in Pali, concerning the sect of Budha. — The library contains also Sanskrit and Chinese manuscripts. One of the latter consists of nine volumes relating to astronomy. These books notice, says the author, p. 140., as an astronomical observation made in China, the

the conjunction of the planets Saturn, Jupiter, Mars, and Mercury, between the 11th and 18th degrees of Pisces, the sun and moon being in the eleventh degree of Libra; which conjunction took place on the 28th of February in the year 2549 before the Christian era. This fact proves the great antiquity of Chinese astronomy. — Another curious manuscript consists of Chinese coloured prints, with descriptive titles in writing, executed by native artists under the direction of the Jesuits, and representing some of the principal miracles of Christ.

Among the Latin manuscripts, may be distinguished the *Psychomachia* of Prudentius, which so remarkably resembles the *Prabodh Chandrodaya*, or Intellectual Moonshine of the Hindoos.

Another curious manuscript is the often-cited *Alexandreidos*, in ten books. This was printed in 1558 by R. Granjon, at Lyons: but no copy of the printed edition is known to exist; and even the Italian translation of it intitled *Historia di Alessandro*, printed at Trevisa in 1559, is become extremely rare.

The number of manuscripts here preserved, which are adapted to throw light on ecclesiastical history, is very considerable. They have chiefly been obtained from the libraries of suppressed monasteries, and include travels of missionaries hitherto inedited, lives of saints who were admired by their disciples, and chronicles of institutions which have lately been abolished. Of every remarkable manuscript, a description, a history, and an epitome, are briefly given.

Joseph Smith, an English bibliographer, published at Venice in 1737 a catalogue of the books printed before 1500 which had been in his own possession. Of this catalogue, the original manuscript is preserved at Lyons.

No. 238. is a manuscript-treatise connected with British history, intitled *De Summâ Regum Potestate in subditos contra rebelles Angliæ*. It was occasioned by the execution of Charles I., and is a defence of the inviolability of kings.

No. 391. is a manuscript-exposition on Samuel by the venerable *Bede*. The entire works of that author should be reprinted in England: his theological commentaries display the taste and opinion of a devout age. No. 401., which relates to Esdras, is by the same author, and not less curious. So again is No. 403.

No. 615. contains the Apology for the Christian Religion, which Gennadius presented to Mohammed II. on the taking of Constantinople in 1458. Gennadius was in consequence appointed patriarch, and accepted his crosier at the hands of the Moslem emperor. This apology is an important historical document, which deserves to be separately edited.

Some Gothic poems concerning Arthur, Roland, and Ogier the Dane, are included in No. 649.

No. 651. conceals perhaps the original sketch of Tasso's "Jerusalem Delivered." It is a long poem, in 30,000 lines, relative to the first crusade.

No. 675. is a manuscript of the year 1300, intitled *Roman du Roy Artus*: it was printed at Rouen in 1488, and has been the main source of all the romance about Arthur. It well deserves to be edited once more.

No. 686. is intitled *Pelerinage de Vie humaine*. It is a rhimed allegorical poem, a spiritual parody of "the Romaunt of the Rose." This work was long very popular in the pious world, and suggested to Simon Patrick, our Bishop of Chichester, his *Pilgrim*. Bunyan seized on the subject with a still greater popularity of success, which is yet felt in this country, but begins to decay.

The second volume of M. DELANDINE opens with the catalogue of historical manuscripts.

No. 732. is supposed to contain inedited matter concerning the crusades.

No. 737. is a manuscript in two volumes folio, important to geography and to civil and ecclesiastical history. It comprehends abridged annals of Japan, a minute account of the religious opinions and ceremonies of the Japanese, and many particulars of the missionary-travels of Fathers *Francis Xavier*, *Luis Almeida*, *Torres*, *Froez*, *Acosta*, *Fernandez*, and others. The chronicle of Japan, from 1549 to 1598, is given with peculiar minuteness: the entire compilation is the work of Father *Bussieres* of Villefranche.

Histoire ancienne de Troye la Grant, No. 782., is one of those romances of chivalry which most influenced the poetry of the middle age.

Chronique du noble Roi Richard, No. 815., is a manuscript of the thirteenth century relative to English history, which may deserve attention.

No. 816. An unpublished chronicle of Savoy. *Abrégé des Annales de la Chine*, No. 819. This valuable epitome of the great history of China was made there by the Jesuit *J. M. Moyria de Mailla*, who was honoured by the Emperor with the title of Fong-Ping-Tshing.

No. 837. *Vies d'illustres Personnages*. These biographies are not excellent: but they include persons who have faded on our interest, and concerning whom the means of research are continually dispersing.

No 862. *Ambassade de Valençay, Bailli de Malte*. As affording illustrations of an island attached to the British empire, this

this work may deserve the consultation of our geographers, or rather of such local historians as M. *Boisgelin.*

Under the head of *Arts and Sciences*, a multitude of manuscripts occur, containing chemical disquisitions, and other matters appertaining to natural history and philosophy. Copious analyses and extracts are given, especially from the archives of the Academy of Lyons. In reading them, we cannot but be struck with the reflection, "how soon Science grows old." These numerous and various academical dissertations engaged the attention and interest of Europe between the years 1780 and 1790, and conferred a social reputation on the contributors: but already we may almost call the labour lost, which is bestowed even on recording the vestiges of their existence.

No. 910. contains a medical memoir on the plague by M. *Paris*, who had observed that disease at Constantinople; and who advises to induce suppuration of the buboes.

In No. 935. we have thermometrical observations of M. *Christin.* He says that, when the sun first shines out after a brisk shower, the heat of its rays is usually greater than it is after a certain duration of radiance; a remark which most of us, perhaps, have had occasion to make.

No. 951. gives an interesting account of an operation executed during 1738 in the harbour of Malta by a Piedmontese engineer named Marandon. It consisted in blowing to pieces, under water, a rock which impeded the entrance.

The third volume opens with manuscripts of jurisprudence. They relate chiefly to the history of the French parliaments, and to the rights of the Gallican clergy.

Manuscripts of theology follow. A great many of these, which are mostly the unpublished works of pious monks, breathe a spirit of mystical and orthodox devotion, entirely in unison with the feelings of that evangelical sect which is covering, as with a web of gossamer, the whole surface of this land. We suggest the detachment of some holy missionaries to Lyons, for the purpose of copying, translating, and editing such manuscript-literature.—No. 1130. contains a *Traité contre le Comédie* ascribed to the Prince *de Conti.* No. 1131. is intitled *Avis salutaire contre l'Opéra.* No. 1160. is superscribed *Blasphêmes faits contre Dieu par Calvin.* The French Jansenists founded the system of our evangelical Christians.

Manuscripts in foreign modern tongues form the next class: some in Italian merit notice.

The next and very extensive subdivision is formed by the manuscripts relating to Lyons: but these can have no particular importance in the estimation of our readers.

At p. 462. begins an appendix of supplemental matter, in which certain miscellaneous manuscripts, not included in the preceding classifications, are severally enumerated. Among these, the most worthy of distinction is perhaps the author's own manuscript, No. 1491., which contains extracts from his correspondence with various men of letters, who consulted him on points of literature. No. 1492. also supplies short literary memoirs of M. DELANDINE.

Much dull and dry toil must have been spent in the composition of this work. Four thousand memoirs, the author tells us, he was obliged to read, in order to furnish a short notice of their contents; and the conversancy with Gothic writing of different ages which it was necessary progressively to acquire, in order to arrive at the knowlege of the inutility of the volumes in which it is often employed, greatly increased the difficulty of his task. Seldom, very seldom, was the discovery of new fact or unpublished beauty the recompence of his industry. When a traveller plunges into the heart of Lybia, in order to bring back to the civilized world some unknown aromatic; when his feet painfully sink in the sand, and his burning forehead bows beneath the sun; when no verdure refreshes his eye, no water relieves his parched lip, and no voice answers from the deep solitude of the desert; what shall support him, exclaims M. DELANDINE, but the hope of being useful to his native land, and of being welcomed on his return by enlightened countrymen and friends! — And they will welcome and cheer these civic labours. — M. DELANDINE has taught to the bibliographer the difficult art of rendering a catalogue amusing; and of attaching important instruction to his various notices, with conciseness, and without digression.

ART. III. *La Feuille des Gens du Monde*, &c.; *i. e.* The Fashionable Paper, or Imaginary Journal. By Madame DE GENLIS. With the Music of the Romances. 8vo. Paris. 1813. London, Colburn.

WE have heard of Dr. Madden's *Memoirs of the Twentieth Century*, of *Mercier's Year* 2440, of More's *Utopia*, of *Clinius's Subterraneous Journey*, and other whimsical accounts of things that do not exist; not to mention the Travels of Gulliver, or the very many Gulliverian details that are recorded of foreign lands, and which too fatally prove how dangerous it is to the cause of sense and veracity to lose sight of our own land. Indeed, were recorded facts to be weighed against recorded inventions, were all the books of history and

science to be numbered against those of imagination, were the indispensably necessary to be drawn out against the incontestably unnecessary, were the *somethings* put in array against the *nothings*, and the worthy against the worthless, the latter would outbalance the former part of the antithesis in the ratio of ninety and nine to an unit. The Journal before us, however, not only professes to be imaginary in itself, but, among other excentricities, it treats of publications which have never been published, records the complaints of authors who have never been aggrieved, and notices persons who have never been born, with things as impassive and aerial as the persons and publications.

Having premised thus much, and making all due allowance for that proportion of nonsense which, it should seem, is a necessary ingredient in most works of fancy, and without which they would doubtless be imperfect, we must add that this work is not destitute of some instructive and some entertaining pages.

'We are to suppose,' the author informs us, 'that this imaginary Journal has been published weekly, and that, at the end of the year, the numbers have been collected together into one volume. Every thing is, in fact, imaginary in this pretended Journal; the criticisms apply to works that do not exist; the eulogies and disputes are equally void of foundation; and the extracts from dramatic pieces, poems, romances, and history, which are here given, are but fictions, or the plans of works among which young authors may perhaps discover some new ideas. Ridiculous citations are made from books that do not exist; in a word, every tittle in this volume is entirely imaginary *. It appeared to the author that this supposition of a previously published journal furnished, as it were, a frame-work at once new and curious, and afforded the most natural means of presenting a great variety of manner, of ideas, and of descriptions.'

Madame DE GENLIS professes that her object is to interest the affections of young persons in the cause of literature; and, although the criticisms relate to visionary works, the principles which guide them are those of authors who have lived their century. Poesy and Dialogues, History and Enigmas, Odes and Riddles, Epic Poems and Conundrums, Tragedies, Charades, Tales, Fables, Romances, and Extracts from *Nothing*, are selected as the vehicles of this instruction. We have in former numbers professed our admiration of the precision, energy, and closeness of French prose, and this volume contains pages that might be cited in support of our position. Whether the concentration of much thought into a small space, which is observable in

'* With the exception of citations of historical facts, of those which are extracted from works of celebrated authors no longer in existence, and from foreign books recommended to be translated by the notice of an imaginary translation.'

prose-writers among our neighbours, and the general diffuseness of English prose, be owing to the comparative force of the two languages, or whether they be attributable to the different auspices under which the works themselves are ushered into the world, we do not in this place attempt to discuss. It appears to us, however, that the English language, under the controul of a strong mind, unbiassed by mercenary motives, is susceptible of much compression; and that, independently of its share of peculiar advantages in common with other tongues, it partakes of a considerable proportion of French precision. Why Madame DE GENLIS, whose prose is frequently of the best order, should commence this elementary volume with some moderate verses on a violet and a sensitive plant, a miserable quatrain on a "Figure of Hope holding an Hour-glass," a wretched common-place on two lighted torches, whose united flame is an emblem of Hymen, a jejune enigma, and a silly charade on a pair of tongs, is beyond our comprehension. *D'Alembert* the philosopher boasted of his poetry; Milton, of his most spiritless production; and an ingenious philosopher of our own country, whose chemical lectures have contributed so much to diffuse that science and make it fashionable, finds great comfort in interrupting a curious experiment by a few idle couplets of his own manufacture. The pride of these men is in their weakness; and, in conformity with great examples, Madame DE G. throws away her strength, which is her prose, to obtrude on her fair pupils a collection of metrical productions, which, unless in the form of *papillotes*, can do their heads no sort of good. As, however, we have not contracted with our readers to supply them with these cosmetic papers, we will content ourselves with one sweeping anathema against the verse, and bring forwards a specimen of the prose which we consider to be in the author's best manner. The following observations would not have disgraced the *Spectator*:

"We sometimes meet with persons who devote themselves to study only through caprice, or at best by fits and starts. Their violent and sudden taste for an art, or for letters, resembles a fit of despair; they shut themselves up, retire from the world, and throw themselves into their study, there to turn pale with nightly lucubrations. In this confinement, they read without any real interest, but with a kind of phrenzy, an inconceivable precipitation, as if they had betted to run through some formidable quarto in a short space of time. Painfully they struggle against sleep and spleen, in order to accumulate extracts, notes, and citations. What remains to them of all these sheets dispersed on their bureau, and made up without order or selection? Nothing; or, which is yet worse, they will derive from them some confused notions, false ideas, and ill-founded pretensions; for we never retain any thing in our memories unless we have read calmly,

with reflection, and have well understood and relished. At the expiration of a fortnight or three weeks, when their physical powers are exhausted, they will again make their appearance in society, with red eyes, and pale and haggard countenances; and we might be inclined to think that they had experienced some bitter calamity, or that they were slowly recovering from some dangerous illness. To make amends for a retreat so austere and irksome, they plunge into the vortex of the most frivolous dissipation, and give themselves up for whole months to total idleness. This is not the road that leads to excellence in art, or in letters. He who would travel far should not run till he is out of breath; fatigue would compel him to stop short in his career, and prevent him from arriving at the goal. To insure success, he should go forwards with a firm and even step, with strength, but not with impetuosity. Seclusion from the human race is so far from necessary to improvement, that much is learned from the world which books will never teach. The world (if studied with attention and circumspection) is an admirable school for observing and reflecting minds. If extreme dissipation in youth leaves but few ideas, misanthropy engenders ideas that are false.'

This is a calm and reasonable reproof to many who labour in vain in the great field of literature: from its extensive application, it is useful; and, from the ingenuity of diction, it has the semblance of being new. The essay, however, which appears to us most worthy of remark, is a supposed criticism on a supposed work, intitled "A comparative View of the Arts of Industry in France and England." This imaginary production treats of that ridiculous Anglomania which rendered the Parisian a wretched Englishman, and a yet more wretched Frenchman. From manners, it digresses to industry. On the superiority of manners, and all that refers to taste, differences of opinion and disputes may arise, but works of industry are reduceable to absolute experiment, by which their comparative merits are estimated. It appeared on trial that the French files of M. *Raoul's* manufactory were more perfect than an equal number of English files which were tried against them. In this case, taste is no judge: but might we not suspect the French files to have been chosen for their quality and the English for their cheapness? If so, the assertion that "French files are infinitely superior to English" is certainly unfounded. Works of taste, however, admit of no such proof; the decision is purely arbitrary.

The sum and substance of Mad. DE G.'s remarks are that the French set diamonds better, work finer tapestries, bind books more durably, gild more richly, and ride more gallantly on steeds trained and caparisoned more martially, than the English; that their clothes are finer and more durable; that their porcelain, mirrors, and lustres, defy imitation; and that their

engraving is at once more bold and more delicate. Hence she assumes that French industry performs more wonders than that of England: but did it not occur to her that industry is never less usefully exercised than in labouring for the few; that what is exquisite in workmanship is placed beyond the reach of the many; that the proportion of people, to whom the comforts and conveniences are necessary, are to the luxurious as one to many thousands; and that English manufactures, like the English government, are devoted to universal and not to individual purposes? Without entering into a disquisition which would prove our continental rivals to be inferior to ourselves in many articles, how wretched have been the modes of their invention! What ingenuity have they shewn in distorting the human form, by prescribing a dress yet more grotesque than that of the most savage tribes? A coat, a bag-wig, a tail, powder, pomatum, buckles, buttons, a cravat, and those cruel bandages which convert the round forms into angular, are all of Gallic origin, and were the blessings conferred on the men. Not to speak of the dislocation of the ancles, and the distortion of the knees, which were formerly the first *pas de danse* with both sexes, what profanations of female loveliness were the hoop, the high-heeled shoe, the head-dress of cushions, pins, and ribbons, paint, patches, and other abominations? Disfigured by these absurdities, how contemptible would the modern youth appear to the eyes of an Alcibiades, — a modern Cato in a full-bottomed wig, beside the venerable censor of antient times; — how graceless a belle of twenty years ago, or in her court-dress, beside a Thais or a Corinna! French fashions have succeeded equally in divesting youth of its freshness and age of its respect. French taste is without doubt happily exercised in the works which are summed up by this fair author: it has produced good furniture: but it has annihilated the human form. Among its other productions, may be reckoned good books; and our respect for Madame DE GENLIS, who in the worst of times was ever the champion of Christianity, would influence us to class this volume in the number, did it not contain, among some specimens of good taste, so very many of a contrary complexion. Besides the frippery in verse, here are too many attempts at telling tales, evidently begun before the author had a tale to tell. The History of Anephis, the Poem of Idalie, and the many works of imagination conceived without imagination, should serve to caution Madame DE GENLIS against giving too much indulgence to her pen.

The

The errata are numerous. P. 1. *un indiscrète main*, for *une*. P. 4. *rein* for *rien*. 9. *one ne doit* for *on*. 45. *son* for *sont*. 46. *rendres* for *rendre*, &c. &c.

ART. IV. M. BRETON's *New Elements of Literature.*

[*Article concluded from the last Appendix.*]

IN the fifteenth chapter, the wealth of the Italian epopea is displayed. M. *Châteaubriand*, in his *Genie du Christianisme*, prefers the hell of Dante to the hell of Virgil, and deems it the more poetic and impressive delineation: but we are not convinced of the justice of this remark. M. BRETON commits an unlucky blunder of translation, (Vol. iv. p. 55.) in rendering the words of Dante,

" *E quella parte, donde prima e preso*
Nostro alimento, all' un di lor trafisse."

The poet is speaking of the navel: but the translator's fancy wanders elsewhere:

' *Il frappe le premier à ce viscère ignoble,*
Où s'accomplit le mystère de la nutrition;'

and thus, by his officious prudery, he turns the language of Dante into jargon, and the thought into vulgarity: instead of *où s'accomplit* the text says *où commença*. We strongly incline to class these poems of Dante among satires, and are of opinion that they should be translated with a comic mordacity, not with the strutting solemnity of the tragic buskin. " All the Christian poets," says *Chateaubriand*, " have failed in delineating the Christian heaven. Some have erred through timidity, as Tasso and Milton; some through philosophy, as *Voltaire*; and some through exuberance, as *Klopstock*. *Chapelain*, in his Maid of Orleans, has alone placed the Christian paradise in its true point of view."

Trissino chose for his topic an inglorious incident: it would have been fortunate for Italy if Belisarius had never been sent thither to re-annex the country to the Greek empire. Italy wanted Gothic kings independent of Constantinople. The Pepins and Charlemagnes could not but originate; Belisarius caused them to spring up and to reside in a more remote and less civilized district; and thus he prolonged both the barbarism of the north and the servitude of Italy.

Tasso is again examined in detail. As *Delille* says elegantly,

" *Sa Muse a pour charmer la baguette d'Armide.*"

Several French translators of Tasso are criticized, and M. *Baour de Lormian* is preferred. The just observation is made, that

that Tasso has not sufficiently used the Mohammedan mythology; it was that which he ought to have put in motion against the Christians: but probably he was not sufficiently conversant with oriental literature.

Not enough is said of Ariosto, but the author promises to return to him and the romantic poets of Italy:—they have given celebrity to various characters who will again be led into the epic tournament. Whether the repulsion of the Saracens by Charles Martel is to be sung by a Frenchman, or the defeat of Charlemagne at Ronceval by a Spaniard, the established fictions and characters, and the happier incidents and episodes, must be carefully transplanted. "Never invent when you can borrow what is good" is wise though timid counsel, both to the poet and the prose-writer: whatever is produced that is original is the mortar for the edifice, and the less of that the better; go for the marble to the quarry, or the ruin.

The Spanish and Portuguese poets are examined in the sixteenth chapter; and here Camoens is the principal figure. Instead of Venus and Bacchus, it might be wished that the Hindoo divinities had been introduced; and it is not unlikely that, at Calcutta, some *refaccimento*, some re-fashioned free version, of the Lusiad, may be undertaken, in which that oriental experience and literature which Camoens too much neglected will be made to avail. The Araucana of Ercilla is sufficiently noticed: but those minor epic poems are wholly passed over, of which in our lxxth Vol., N.S., p. 461., we took a cursory survey.

French epic poets occupy the next subdivision. The *Davideis* of *Coras* is defended against *Boileau*: the *Saint Louis* of *Le Moine* is indicated as a mine of patriotic and Christian incident and feeling; and the *Henriade* of *Voltaire* is opposed to the *Pharsalia* of *Lucan*. The *Petreide* of *Thomas* has only been hitherto preserved from neglect by some oratorical passages in unison with the spirit of the French Revolution. The *Colombiade* of Miss *Dubocage* is protected not less by gallantry than by merit, from any unwelcome animadversion.

In the eighteenth section, the English epopea is examined. The critic awards the first place to Macpherson, the translator of the poems of Ossian; although he admits that the accumulation of gigantic but vague ideas, and of energetic but gloomy descriptions, if striking at first, has at length a fatiguing monotony. We rather agree with the poet *Lebrun*:

> " *Homère, au soleil de la Grèce,*
> *Emprunte ses plus doux rayons;*
> *Mais Ossian n' a point d' ivresse:*
> *La lune glace ses crayons.*

" *Sa*

" *Sa sublimité monotone*
Plane sur de tristes climats;
C'est un long orage qui tonne
Dans la saison des noirs frimas.

" *De manes, de fantômes sombres,*
Il charge les ailes des vents;
Et le souffle des pâles ombres
Refroidit même les vivans."

Milton obtains the second place, and is reviewed in great detail. M. BRETON blames in the first book the fiction of the " Spirits to smallest forms reducing their shapes immense;" and, in the second, the odd allegory of Sin and Death, and the employment of emblematic with mythologic beings. He censures also the doctrinal character of the Dialogue between God and his Son, in the third book; and the ignoble transformation of Satan into a toad, in the fourth. In the fifth book he objects to the Dissertation on angelic Digestion (line 400—445.); and, in the sixth, to the Invention of Gunpowder. Similar criticisms have often been urged: but some of the faults of Milton were inseparable from the subject. The catastrophe (the eating of an apple) appears too little an event for the mighty preparatory agency which is employed to effect it; and the paucity of human personages, with the absence of all ordinary human sollicitudes and pursuits, inflicts some privation of interest or sympathy. The unlimited boldness, yet strict orthodoxy, with which Milton employs the great machines of Christianity, has never been surpassed, and equally displays his strength of mind and his fund of appropriate learning. — The author then examines *Delille*'s version of the *Paradise Lost;* in which the lofty, pedantic, condensed, and pregnant style of Milton is exchanged for a more Virgilian, natural, tame, and diluted manner. Certain words in French pass for ungenteel, and inadmissible into good company or poetic associations. The line 177. of the twelfth book of Milton offers the example of a difficulty of this kind, which his translator, with exquisite skill, has overcome. The English words are,

" Frogs, *lice*, and flies, must all his palace fill
With loath'd intrusion."

Delille thus paraphrases and periphrases the passage:

" *D' immondes animaux pullulent sous leurs toits;*
Le vil crapaud croasse à la table des rois;
Et jusques sous la pourpre une vermine impure
Fait de l'orgueil puni la honte et la torture."

This is indeed borrowing " fair Ligea's golden comb," and preferring the artful modulations of the Syren to the natural strength

strength of cadence in the Muse. Surely, the poet, by scratching his head, only detains attention on the indecorous idea.

Pope, Dryden, Glover, Wilkie, and Barlow, are the other English epic poets whom the author enumerates. Barlow's Columbiad is in American literature what Drayton's Polyolbion is in our own.

The nineteenth chapter treats of the epic poets of Germany. The German critics, says M. BRETON, oppose to the Paradise Lost and to the *Henriade*, the *Messiah* of *Klopstock*, the *Noah* of *Bodmer*, the *Death of Abel* by *Gesner*, the *Cyrus* of *Wieland*, and the *Cortes* of *Zacharia*.

Klopstock, according to M. BRETON, or to his German authority, has carried to greater perfection than Milton the art of sacred poetry; and *Chateaubriand* observes that, by allying the mythology of Christianity with the knowlege of the age, he has contrived a new machinery. In the *marvellous* of the Messiah, its abundance and its grandeur are especially remarkable. The character of Abbadona, the penitent angel, is happily conceived. *Klopstock* has also created a sort of mystical seraphs, unknown before his fiat. Specific beauties are indicated; and the episode of Dilean is especially commended, and said to have been highly valued by the author. At his funeral, the passage describing the death of Mary was performed in recitative. — The poem of *Klopstock* is read with much of that weighty awful feeling which comes on the mind, while we are patiently sitting in a vast cold cathedral, listening for the organ's notes. "What's o'clock? We have been here a monstrous while!"

That the aspirations of piety sometimes stretch into a yawn is allowed to be the case at least with *Bodmer*. *Gesner*, says *Chateaubriand*, leaves in the Death of Abel a work of mild and tender majesty: but it has a certain sheepish cast, which the Germans willingly give to scriptural subjects: — it also betrays a want of probability in the manners; the progenitors of the shepherd-kings of the east were not innocent Arcadian shepherds.

Zacharia has published only four cantos of his poem concerning Cortes; and *Wieland* only five (see our xxiid Volume, p. 506.) of his poem concerning Cyrus; so that criticism cannot discuss the plan of the fable, the importance of the knot, the consistency of the several characters, and the interest of the catastrophe. Beauties of detail M. BRETON concedes to these fragments. He thinks that the other works of their authors do not fall within the province of this chapter. The fact is, M. *Eschenburg* was writing when those specimens were new, and were consequently objects of attention and hopeful expecta-

expectation in Germany. Now that they are thrown by as unfinished, M. BRETON might have passed them over wholly. They are literary torsos, not of Hercules after his apotheosis, but of Vulcan, after he had been thrust out of heaven.

Volume v. continues the topic of narrative heroic poetry. Certain modern Latin poems are discussed; such as the *Ignaciad* of Father *Lebrun*, and *Sannazarius De partu Virginis*. The religious poems of the Italians, to which Milton was much indebted, are numerous, and deserve translation: *Sannazarius* begins thus:

> " *Virginei partus, magnoque æquæva parenti*
> *Progenies, superas cæli quæ missa per auras,*
> *Antiquam generis labem mortalibus ægris*
> *Abluit, obstructique viam patefecit Olympi,*
> *Sit mihi, cælicolæ, primus labor.*" —

Pulci's Morgante Maggiore, *Boiardo's Orlando Inâmorato*, *Ariosto's Orlando Furioso*, and *Fortinguerra's Ricciardetto*, then pass in concise review. These romantic poets are not worthy of entire translation: but they contain striking single adventures and incidents, which a skilful versifier might *fit up* as separate tales; thus preserving a knowlege of the beauties of each poet, and of the principal achievements of each hero.

The father of General *Dumouriez* published in 1764, at Paris, a free translation of the *Ricciardetto*; and this French poem is remarkable as having given to *Wieland* the idea of composing his *Idris* and his *Modern Amadis*. Some other French poems are cited; such as the *Narcisse* of *Malfilatre*, the *Printemps d'un Proscrit* of *Michaud*, and the *Enfant Prodigue* of *Campenon*.

The English heroic poets are next in turn: but the author names only Spenser. He hastens to the German school, and proceeds to dissect *Wieland*. The Idris and Amadis are more praised than they deserve; the Oberon less; and the double knot, which supplies a motive for the interference of Oberon and Titania with the fortunes of Huon and Rezia, is here censured as a fault, instead of being brought out as a felicity. *Alwinger's Doolin of Mayence*, and the anonymous *Richard Lion-heart* (see our xxth Volume, p. 535.), are noticed chiefly for the sake of recommending the romances of chivalry to the study of the poetic artist, as the mine of fable which fancy can best work into magnificence, and which patriotism would explore with indefatigable curiosity.

In the twenty-first chapter, Burlesque Poems are criticized. The Batrachomyomachia is analyzed at length; and the *Pugna Porcorum* of Father *Portius* is noticed, in which every word begins with the same letter, thus:

> " *Pergite, porcelli, porcorum pigra propago.*"

Berni,

Berni, who burlesqued the *Orlando inamorato*; *Tassoni*, who wrote the *Secchia rapita*; and *Casti*, who composed a concatenated fable intitled *Gli Animali parlanti*; are severally introduced. The *Æneid* of *Scarron*, the *Lutrin* of *Boileau*, the *Vert-vert* of *Gresset*, and the *Gastronomie* of *Birchoux*, are also celebrated. Butler's *Hudibras*, so admirably translated into French by Mr. Townley, Pope's *Rape of the Locke*, and Gay's *Fan*, are mentioned; and, among German poems, the *Schnupf-tuch* of *Zacharia*.

The twenty-second chapter undertakes the discussion of dramatic poetry. Guided by *La Harpe* through the scenes of antiquity, the writer comments on them with established propriety: but he has not omitted to avail himself of the superior antiquarian knowlege of the German critics, and especially of *Schlegel*, respecting the structure of the Greek stage; without clear ideas of which, many passages of the antique drama remain unintelligible.

'The Greek theatre had immense width and little depth. The scene commonly represented an open place, or public square. The back of the stage was a façade adorned with columns. The decorations never represented the inside of a room. When it was wished to offer a domestic scene to the spectator, a door was thrown open in the back-ground, called *encyclema*; and the persons within conversed through it with those who remained without. For want of attending to this, M. *La Harpe* is puzzled, in a scene of the Acharnanians, to conceive how Euripides can converse with Diceopolis, while he protests that he will not quit his room.

'The stage had five entrances, which the actor used according to circumstances, and to the place to or from which he was going. One door, called the *Charoniac*, which led under the orchestra, was exclusively allotted to spectres.'

Chapter xxiv. presents a commentary on the comic poets of the Greeks. Of the eleven remaining plays of Aristophanes, an abridged account is given; and the Plutus, which, according to *Schlegel*, was one of his latest writings, is preferred as a work of art. In consequence of a change of decoration mentioned in the *Eirene*, M. Breton takes occasion to observe that unity of place was no law of the antient drama; and that the difficulty of shifting the scene constituted the only impediment to definite and obvious changes of locality. He states but does not ratify the judgment of *Schlegel*, who places Aristophanes at the head of comic art, and advises the modern world to copy the wildest forms of his caricature. They have, however, been imitated with great effect and success on the German stage; where the fable of the *Frogs desiring a King* has been versified dramatically, set to music, and performed with a chorus

chorus of frogs; and where *Puss in Boots*, in which speaking-animals are the only personages, has obtained for its author, M. *Tielke*, national popularity and celebrity! By painting on the scenery various common objects, of colossal dimensions, the animals of human size acquire in the spectator's eye a due proportion. We can have no wish to hear the croaking-chorus, nor to listen to the *oratory* of *dumb* animals: but, if these German innovations succeed, the best dramas of antiquity will revive with little real alteration on the modern stage; and a complete history of the dramatic art will be acquired at the theatre itself.

Menander, Philemon, and other dramatists of antiquity, are next characterized; and the reader is referred to the *Stirées litteraires* of *Coupé* for a more extended account of their fragments, accompanied by elegant translations.

To tragedy, the twenty-fifth chapter is dedicated. The original purpose, as the best use, of tragedy, is to commemorate the more remarkable features in the history of our forefathers; and thus the prominent misfortunes of the early Greek kings formed the topics of Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides. None of these poets thought of swerving from the recorded catastrophe, for the purpose of giving a neater conclusion to their plays; and, far from wishing to produce in the spectator's mind a confusion of fact and fiction, they considered it as an object honestly to abridge the annals of their country, and naturally to account for deeds which were apparently excentric and atrocious. In our nation, too, Shakspeare has steadily adhered to this valuable and important principle, that in the historic drama the poet is to explain what happened, and not to invent what never occurred. A set of writers, however, has arisen, in modern times, ignorant of the real history of the persons whose adventures they undertook to dramatize, who have contrived imaginary and improbable situations for them, and who call, by the name of tragedies, these deceptious dramatic romances. *Racine's Mithridates*, and Rowe's *Tamerlane*, are pieces of this description: but it is a plan of composition less instructive than the historic drama; and, though favourable to poignancy of situation and rotundity of plot, it is not adapted for the evolution of character. Hence the framers of dramas respecting fictitious events are to be placed in the secondary rank of art and competition. For the power of illusion, they trust to the ignorance of the spectator; and, like those artists in painting who copy from models, and not from nature, they sacrifice to splendor of colouring the fidelity of appearance. Tragedy will then have acquired its proper condition and destination, when a dramatic history of Greece, a dramatic history of Rome,

or

or a dramatic history of England, can be exhibited at the theatre, in a series of plays which imprint the leading events on the memory in an interesting and undistorted manner.

Fabricius computes, from the notices furnished by Suidas, Athenæus, and others, that the Greek theatre of Alexandria, during the sway of the Ptolemaic dynasty, had the command over three thousand plays; and about three hundred and fifty comic or tragic writers have been named by the critics of antiquity. The number of their pieces which have descended to our times is small; and they seem to consist rather of those which had ceased to be popular at the theatre, and were transcribed for the closet. Indeed, who can suppose a very refined people to have borne, as a social amusement, the delineation of Orestes murdering, or Oedipus marrying, his own mother? The Greeks comprized the representation of a given day under the name of a *trilogy;* and these triple entertainments usually consisted of two serious plays, and a farce. Thus the *Prometheus chained* was preceded by *Prometheus stealing fire*, and followed by a satiric drama. Several plays, which continue the history of the same person, were written as second or third parts of the same grand concatenation of incident, and were performed in immediate succession. The three plays of Æschylus concerning the family of Agamemnon constitute a noble heroic trilogy. In this combination, a Greek trilogy bears a close resemblance to a Gothic play: to change of place, or to lapse of time, between the pauses of the action, the poet does not object: but he applies to each incident, or act, the great law of climax; and, to the entire event, the doctrine of unity of action, or interest. The proper method of accommodating Greek plays to the German or the English theatre would be, to unite in one piece two or more of the habitually connected dramas. Even for the French theatre, a Greek play has too little business; and, in the Oedipus of *Voltaire*, as in the Oedipus of Dryden, we find an addition of incident to the more simple plot of Sophocles.

Among the Greek tragedians, Æschylus is remarkable for a lyric majesty of manner, — for giving to his personages a colossal heroism of character. Sophocles excels in plan, in the contrivance of situations, and in a certain refinement of feeling which is aware of all the moral beauty of sincerity, sensibility, and self-immolation. Euripides gives more personality to his persons; in Æschylus, in Sophocles, every character has a tinge of the poet: but in Euripides every character is animated by its own nature, and talks and acts accordingly: if his heroes sometimes derogate from nobility, they are full of humanity; and if his tragedy sometimes faulters into comedy, it remains faithful

faithful to reality. Æschylus delights in majesty, Sophocles in beauty, Euripides in truth, of nature.

The Roman theatre occupies the twenty-sixth chapter. Plautus is first examined; and the *Miser* and the *Amphitryon* of *Moliere* are preferred to the pieces whence they are borrowed, the *Aulularia* and the *Amphitryon*. Terence is next criticized: he has more grace and less comic force than Plautus: he paints better the manners of civilized life, and Plautus those of the vulgar.

The tragedians follow. The ten plays, called after Seneca, are written by several hands. The Octavia must be of later date, because she was living when Seneca died: but the Medea is probably a translation by Ovid from the Greek; at least he composed a tragedy with that title. Hippolytus is the best of these pieces. Julius Cæsar, and the Pisos, may have contributed translations to this dramatic anthology.

Chap. xxvii. examines the Italian theatre, and its history is given after *Schlegel*. Certain forms of exhibition were handed down by immemorial tradition from the classical ages; and of Harlequin and Polichinello we detect traces in the Attelan farces of antiquity. The theatrical entertainments peculiar to the modern world are those *vangeli* and *comedie spirituelle*, which the monks performed in their churches, on sabbaths and saints' days, in order to spread among the multitude a knowlege of scripture-history. More of pantomine than of dialogue was introduced; and much of religious song and chaunt was employed to beguile the time during the long display of the principal show, or pageant. Out of these religious dramas, in which allegorical personages often appeared, grew those *Mysteries* and *Moralities* which made the tour of Europe, and which prepared alike the Spanish and the Gothic drama. The idea of a grand spectacle, descriptive of some important historical event, constitutes the basis of this modern exhibition: the dialogue is to account for the situation of the personages; and the music, to prolong the emotion excited by the contemplation. Our modern artists are continually losing sight of the great principle that a play is a *show*; they write their dialogue as if a play was a *poem*; and, when they have strung together phrases which read prettily in the closet, they expect plaudits at the theatre. The monks of the middle ages understood these things better; they studied human nature at the source, among the rude; they knew from experience that the dialogue would pass off in Latin, if they had but a gaudy pageant for a conclusion, the burning of a martyr, or a cotillion of angels at the wedding of Saint Catharine, or a reel of torch-bearing fiends at the damnation of Don Juan.

The modern Italian comedy and tragedy have a simplicity of structure resembling the antique. Of the comic writers, *Bibbiena* pleased Pope Leo X., and *Goldoni* a public of the last century. The names of *Macchiavelli*, *Ariosto*, *Aretino*, *Cecchi*, *Faginoli*, *Gozzi*, *Capacelli*, &c. may be quoted as having offered contributions to the stock of art in this class, but not as having attained a permanent reputation in it. Of the tragic writers, *Tristino*, *Ruccellai*, *Giraldi*, and *Dolce*, had once a name. *Maffei* wrote a Merope which prepared that of *Voltaire*. *Metastasio* and *Alfieri* are the enduring glories of the tragic theatre of Italy. The former wrote for the opera-house, and interrupts his scenes with superfluous songs: it was usual, too, for the musical drama to conclude happily; hence the sudden revolution and improbable felicity of his catastrophes; and he is not careful, like *Quinault*, to make the ballet, or dance, which succeeds every act, grow out of the piece. *Alfieri* has a gloomy but heroic cast of sentiment: liberty and patriotism gain ground where his tragedies are performed with popularity.

In chapter xxviii. the Spanish theatre is the object of discussion. The pastoral farces of the Spaniards are referred to a Moorish origin. *Lope de Vega* is said to have lost favor in his own country: a new edition of his select works having comprized very few of them. *Calderone* furnished to *Thomas Corneille* the subject of a comedy, *Los Empeños de un ocasv*; and to *Peter Corneille* the subject of his tragedy of *Heraclius*. *Mareto* suggested to *Scarron* his *Don Japhet*, and to *Moliere* his *Princess of Elis*. *Roxas* again furnished to *Scarron* his *Jodelet*, and to *Lesage* his *Point d' Honneur*; and *Solis* supplied *Pierre Corneille* with his *Amour à la Mode*. Lately, the Spaniards have borrowed from the French theatre more than they formerly bestowed.

Chap. xxix. gives a history of the French drama. An edict of Charlemagne in 789 forbade the performing of indecent plays in the churches, but was inefficient; for in the twelfth century a bishop of Paris had occasion again to interfere, in order to prevent the admixture of obscene buffooneries with those legends of the saints which were acted in the churches on holidays. The first traces of the separation of the profession of actor from that of priest occur in 1380, when the *Confrères de la Passion*, a sect of actors so called from their favourite exhibition being the crucifixion of Jesus Christ, obtained from Charles VI. a charter of incorporation, which authorized them to itinerate, and to carry their Golgotha in a waggon from fair to fair. The *Confrères de la Passion* were, however, in the main tragedians; and ere long they found it expedient to unite

with a company of comedians, who obtained a charter under the name of *Enfans sans Souci*. These associated companies opened the first theatres at Paris, and continued to transmit their privileges unimpaired till the beginning of the sixteenth century, when a decree of the parliament of Paris prohibited the mixture of religion with stage-plays; the censures of the Protestants having given occasion to a public feeling which prompted this reform. Moralities, or allegorical pieces, superseded the religious or sacred dramas; and these became objects of a peculiar association of performers, who were eventually chartered under the denomination of *Clercs de la Bazoche*, attorneys' clerks having been instrumental in forming the company.

The oldest French play which retains possession of the stage is *L'Avocat Patelin*; and this was retouched in the reign of Louis XIV. The oldest dramatic writer, who has given a set of stock-plays to the French theatre, is *Pierre Corneille*; and one of his comedies, *Le Menteur*, and many of his tragedies, are still performed with undiminished popularity: especially *Le Cid*, *Polyeucte*, *La Mort de Pompée*, and *Cinna*.

In 1673 may be placed the acme of French comedy, since that was the year in which *Moliere* ceased to write and to live. *Regnard* was next distinguished for several good comedies, especially *Le Joueur* and *Democrite*.

Marivaux, the author of *Mariahne*, one of the best novels of the French, was born at Paris in 1688, and died in 1763. He wrote much, and enjoyed a long popularity. His best pieces are *La Surprise de l'Amour*, *Le Legs*, *Les Jeux du Hasard*, and *La Mère Confidente*. He displays a wittiness of style and an embroidery of language which remind us of Congreve.

Lesage, the author of Gil Blas, was born at Ruy in Brittany in 1677, and died in 1747: of the pieces which he wrote for the stage, only *Turcaret* remains.

Destouches was born at Tours in 1680, and died at Paris in 1754. He was secretary to a French embassy first in Switzerland, then in England; and he altered Addison's *Drummer* for the French stage, where it succeeded under the title of *Le Tambour nocturne*. Of his pieces, the principal are *Le Curieux impertinent*, *L'Irresolu*, *Le Philosophe Marié*, *Le Glorieux*, *La fausse Agnée*, *Le Dissipateur*, and *L'Homme singulier*.

Boissy, who wrote *Le Babillard*, and *La Chaussée*, who wrote household-tragedy, and *Saint-foix*, who wrote *Les Graces*, are named. The *Père de Famille* of *Diderot*, the comedies of *Voltaire*, and the *Metromanie* of *Piron*, also pass in review. *Sedaine's Gageure Imprevue*, and *Beaumarchais' Barbier de Seville*, and other newer comedies of less established reputation, are hurried over at the close of this chapter.

In the thirtieth section, French tragedy is examined; and *Corneille*, *Racine*, and *Voltaire*, are trumpeted as usual. *Corneille* taught the disadvantageous theory that unity of place and unity of time are requisite in tragedy. Illusion is greatly facilitated by change of scene; the spectator is aroused and amused by it; and the law of climax is applicable to it. The splendor of the scene should be progressive; and the last act should pass in apartments more magnificent, or in situations more striking, than the first. Unity of time is sufficiently preserved, if no obvious change has taken place in the age and condition of the parties. For a youth to become a man during a play offends rather because the personal identity is broken, than because the lapse even of years cannot be skipped between act and act. The mind thinks of historic characters, with one and the same set of imaginary portraits, at different periods of their lives; and, provided that the dramatist imitates the internal phænomenon, he is forgiven. Indeed, art is in general but a copy of the manner in which the mind adapts events for the memory: it passes over the insipid, and takes for granted that which is in course; and it colours out, with all the paraphernalia of costume and expression of which it is mistress, the critical situations which are implied in the incident. The French are deserting their obedience to the critical code of *Corneille*: the Italian theatre having accustomed the Parisians to delight in frequent changes of scene.

De Belloy wrote a *Siege of Calais*; and *Lemierre* a *Barnevelt* which had some success: among the lines applauded, this occurs:

"*Le trident de Neptune est le sceptre du monde.*"

The Opera is criticized concisely in the thirty-first chapter. The French opera excels the Italian in this respect, that the dances are made to grow out of the piece; and thus the entire exhibition has unity of purpose and design.

Chapter xxxii, examines the English and the German theatres: but it is a superficial portion of the work, exhibiting little knowlege of either branch of its subject.

In the thirty-third chapter, the theory of epistolary art is given, and the principal models are enumerated.

Of the xxxivth chapter, history is the topic: but it gives a meagre and insufficient account of the great historians; and the theory of the art is not well stated. The subject, however, is too vast for a chapter, and would require an entire volume.

The thirty-fifth and last chapter treats of novels, romances, and tales in prose.

Among

Among the Greek writers of this description, are named Lucian, Achilles Tatius, Heliodorus, Longus, Eustathius, Chariton, Xenophon, Photius, and Damascius; among the Latin, Petronius and Apuleius. — Of the moderns, the author distinguishes the Spaniards, *Cervantes*, *Quevedo*, *Mendoza*, and *Isla*: and the Italians, *Boccaccio*, *Sacchetti*, *Bandello*, *Cinthio*, *Straparola*, and *Suave*: — but, in the multitude of French, English, and German novelists, he feels at a loss for choice.

Madame *Lafayette* is the oldest French novelist whose works preserve some popularity: her *Princess of Clèves* is praised for an elegant simplicity; and her *Zaide* is still read. The *Gil Blas* of *Lesage*, the *Manon Lescaut* of the Abbé *Prevost*, and the *Marianne* of *Marivaux*, remain classical novels. The Fairy-Tales of *Hamilton* have value. *Crebillon* would have acquired rank in this line, had he not mingled so much indecency with his fictions. *Voltaire* has written many tales of undecaying popularity. The heroic novel has been carried to great perfection in the *Nouvelle Heloise* of *Rousseau*. *Marmontel*, *Florian*, and Madame *Cottin*, are praised for adding to the attractions of talent the lessons of morality.

Of the old English novelists, are cited Richardson, Fielding, Sterne, Swift, Smollett, and Goldsmith. It is justly observed that we have no longer any eminent male novelists, and that this genus is transferred to the fair sex: many of whom are here duly enumerated. The old novels displayed and taught most knowlege of the world and of human nature: but the modern novels are purer, and paint a more polished class.

Of the German novelists, *Wieland* and *Goethe* rank high. *Lafontaine* has injured his merited reputation by his fecundity. *Schiller* and *Kotzebue* have also produced works in this line: but Madame *Pichler* is the only female novelist of eminence.

The employment of novel-writing, says the Bishop of Avranches, may be defended not only by the authoritative praise of the patriarch Photius, but by the number of great examples in those who have practised it. It has been cultivated by philosophers of antiquity, as Apuleius and Athenagoras; by Roman prætors, as Sisenna; by consuls, as Petronius; by candidates for the empire, as Claudius Albinus; by priests, as Theodorus Prodromus; by bishops, as Heliodorus and Achilles Tatius; by popes, as Pius II., who composed the loves of Euryalus and Lucretia; and by saints, as Clement, who wrote the Recognitions, and John of Damascus, who wrote Balaam and Josaphat.

With this chapter, concludes a work of which the parts have unequal merit, but the whole has considerable value; and which is adapted to be imitated rather than to be copied.

ART. V. *Glossaire de la Langue Romane, &c.; i. e.* A Glossary of the Romanse Language; collected from the MSS. of the Imperial Library, and from the most complete printed Works on the Subject: containing the Etymology and Signification of Words used in the XIth—XVIth Centuries, with numerous Examples from the same Sources, and a Discourse on the Origin, Progress, and Variations of the French Language. For the Use of those who wish to consult or to obtain a Knowlege of the early French Authors. By J. B. B. ROQUEFORT. 2 large Vols. 8vo. Paris. Imported by Payne and Foss.

WITH the conquests of the Romans, the Latin language overspred Lombardy, Gaul, and Spain. In each of the seventeen provinces of Gaul, a school was founded for its speedier propagation; and it became the official tongue in the tribunals of law and the temples of religion. Still the common people did not acquire the Latin with grammatical nicety: they learned the words without all their inflections, and gradually adopted a rustic dialect; which in Gaul was called *Romanse* to distinguish it from their native Celtic, and which at Rome was called *Provincial*, or *Provençal*, to distinguish it from the pure Latin of the educated classes.

No very early attempts were made to reduce this rustic Latin to writing. The letters which Saint Jerom wrote to the Gallic ladies Hedibia and Algasia were in Latin; and so were those of Saint Hilary of Poitiers to his daughter, those of Sulpicius Severus to his mother-in-law, and those of Saint Avisus to his sister. Sidonius Apollinaris, speaking of the authors who were perused by ladies in his time, mentions the works of Saint Augustin, of Prudentius, and of Varro: in other words, books of piety and of grammar. It was not until the fifth century, when the invasion of Attila detached various provinces of Gaul from their habitual dependence on the Roman empire, that a tendency was visible to employ the local *patois*, instead of the school-Latin of the courts. The clergy endeavoured to maintain the ascendancy of the written over the oral dialect: in the sixth century, Saint Cesaire of Arles composed *exhortations*, and Fortunatus wrote *poems*, in Latin; and the *Life* and *Correspondence* of Queen Radegonde with the council assembled in 566 subsists in Latin: —but the council held at Auxerre in 528 had occasion to forbid the use of vernacular hymns in the churches; and Gregory of Tours, in 552, complains that a philosophic preacher (that is, a schooled Latinist,) was neglected, and a rustic preacher was much sought *. At length, the councils

" * *Philosophantem rhetorem intelligunt pauci, loquentem rusticum multi.*"

of

of Rheims and of Tours were obliged to give way; and, in the following century, to promulgate a decree to this effect: "*Ut easdem Homilias quisque aperte transferre studeat in rusticam Romanam linguam.*" This translation of the book of Homilies into the *Romanse*, or rustic dialect, may be considered as the registry of the birth of that language of which the present author has here compiled a Glossary.

Under Charlemagne, the schools of the clergy were put on a more respectable footing; and an effort was made, which indicates the progress of learning, to restore the use of classical Latin: but these attempts served only to draw the line distinctly between the language of the learned and the language of the people. The Latin was henceforth destined to be peculiar to the *Clerc*, and the *Romanse* to the layman.

One of the oldest and most interesting original muniments extant in romanse is the oath, which Charles the Bald, and his brother Louis the German, took together at Strasburg in March 842. An engraved fac-simile is here given of this curious manuscript. We transcribe the words:

'*Cùmque Karolus hac eadem romana Lingua perorasset, Lodhuicus quoniam major natu erat, prior hac deinde se servaturum testatus est.*

'*Serment de Louis, Roi de Germanie.*

'*Pro Deo amur, et pro Christian poplo, et nostro commun salvament, dist di en avant, in quant Deus savir et podir me dunat, si salvara jeo cist meon Fradre Karlo, et in adjudha, et in cadhuna cosa, si cum om per dreit son fradra salvar dist, in o quid il mi altre si fazet, et ab Ludher nul plaid numquam prindrai, qui meon vol cist meon Fradre Karle in damno sit.*

'*Quod cùm Ludhuicus explesset, Karolus teudisca lingua, sic hac eadem verba testatus est.*

'*Serment de Charles-le-Chauve.*

'*In Godes minna induethes (indinthes) Christianes folches ind unser bedhero gealt nissi (jussi) fon (son) thesenioda ge frammor desso fram so mir Got gewizi ci (ei) indi madh furgibit so hald ihtes an minan bruodher soso manmit rehtu sinan bruher scal inthi (juthi) utha ni-migsoso (soson) maduo, in dimit lueren in nothe in uit hing nege ganga (gango) nheminam vuillon imo ces cadhen vuerhen.*

'*Le même Serment en langue Latine, suivant Bonamy.*

'*Pro Dei amore, et pro Christiano poplo et nostro communi salvamento, de ista die in abante, in quantum Deus sapere et potere mî donat, si salvaro ego eccistum meum Fratrem Karlum, et in adjutum ero in quâque una causa, sic quomodo homo per directum suum fratrem salvare debet, in hoc quid ille mî alterum sic faceret, et ab Lothario nullum*

placitum nunquam prendero quod meo volle eceisti meo Fratri Karlo in damno sit.

‘ *Traduction.*

‘ *Pour l'amour de Dieu et pour le peuple Chrétien, et notre commun salut, de ce jour en avant (à compter de ce jour), autant que Dieu m'en donne le savoir et le pouvoir, je défendrai mon Frère Charles, ici présent, et je l'aiderai en toute chose, ainsi qu'un homme, par droit et justice, doit défendre son frère, en tout ce qu'il feroit de la même manière pour moi ; et je ne ferai jamais avec Lothaire aucun accord qui, par ma volonté, porteroit dommage à mon Frère Charles, que voici.*

‘ *Sacramentum autem quod utrocumque populus quique propria lingua testatus est, Romana lingua sie (sic) se habet.*

‘ *Serment des Seigneurs François, et sujets de Charles-le-Chauve.*

‘ *Si Lodhuvigs sagrament que son Fradre Karlo jurat, conservat, et Karlus meos sendra de suo part non lo stanit, si jo returnar non int pois, ne jo, ne neuls cui eo returnar int pois in nulla adjudha contrà Loduwig nun li juer.*

‘ *Teudisca autem lingua.*

‘ *Serment des Seigneurs et sujets de Louis-le-Germanique.*

‘ *Oba Karl then eid, then er sine no bruodher Hidhuunige (Ludhuwige) gesuor, geleistit, indi (ind) Ludhuwig min herro, then er imo gesuor, forbrihchit, obi hina nes iruvendenne mag' nob ih, nob thero, noh hein thenihes iruvenden mag vuidhar Karle imo ce folus tine, vuirdhit.*

‘ *Le même Serment en langue Latine, suivant Bonamy.*

‘ *Si Ludovicus sacramentum quod suus Frater Karlus jurat conservat, et Karlus meus Senior de suâ parte non illud teneret, si ego retornare non illum inde possum, nec ego, nec nullus quem ego retornare inde possum, in nullo adjuto contra Ludovicum non illi fuero.*

‘ *Traduction.*

‘ *Si Louis observe le serment que son Frère Charles lui jure, et que Charles mon Seigneur, de son côté, ne le tint point, si je ne puis détourner Charles de cette violation, ni moi, ni aucuns que je puis détourner, ne serons en aide à Charles contre Louis.*

‘ *Quibus per actis Lodhuwicus Reno tenus Spiram et Karolus justa Wasagum per Vuizzunburg Warmaciam iter direxit.*

‘ *Bonamy (Mémoires de l'Acad. des Inscrip. tom. 26. pag. 640.) donne la traduction de ce serment en langue Romane du XII^e siècle ; je la transcris seulement avec quelques légères corrections que j'ai crues nécessaires.*

‘ *Por Dex amor, et por Christian pople et nostre commun salvament, de cest jor in avant en kant Deus savoir et pooir me done, si salverai jeo cist meon Frere Karle, et en adjudhe seroi en cascune cose si cum um per dreit sun freire salver dist en o ki il me altresi faset, et à Lotheire nul plaid n'onques prindrai qui par mon voil à cist meun Frere Karle en damn seit.*

‘ *Se*

' Se Loois lo sagrament ke sun Frere Karle jure, cunserve, et Karles meon Senher de sue part non lo tenist, se geo no l'en pois, ne jeo, ne nulz hi jeo retorner en pois, en nul adjudhe Loois nun li serai.'

This document sufficiently proves how entirely and exclusively the *Romanse* or vernacular language of southern Gaul has grown out of the Latin. Scarcely any words called Celtic, and supposed to be native among the Armorican tribes, occur in it; and, though the translation of the same document made in the twelfth century approaches much nearer to modern French, yet the change is altogether a corruption from within, not an alteration from without, effected by the intrusion of foreign words. It is curious to observe the Latin *ego*, in which word the *g* was probably pronounced with a hard aspiration, first written with a Spanish jota, *jo*; then with a softer aspirate, *geo*; and at last dwindling into the French *je*. The egotism of the savage, so honestly emphatic at first, gradually slides into the almost inaudible breathing with which civilization indicates the insignificance of self.

In 995, Aymon the Bishop of Verdun, opened a council held at Mouson sur Meuse, in the vulgar tongue, or *Romanse*: and a translation of the body of Saint Thibaud was recorded in the same dialect in 1078. The song of Roland, which the Norman soldiers sang at the battle of Hastings, proves the *Romanse* language to have been the practical medium of intercourse throughout France.

In the twelfth century a great use was made of the vulgar tongue, for the different purposes of solemn oratory and of amusing literature. Saint Bernard travelled to preach in it, and was every where admired. Abeillard wrote some love-songs in *Provençal*. The poem of *Marbode* was versified anew. *Robert Grosse-tête* composed *Le Roman des Romans*. In 1155 *Le Roman du Brut*, and in 1165 *Le Roman du Rou*, made their appearance. *La Conquête d' Outremer*, and *Guillaume au Court-Nez*, speedily followed. This mass of literature, to which many books of piety might be added, marks the establishment of the vernacular language as the organ of public instruction.

Schools were at this time multiplied, and the fashion of attending them was diffused. The result was an epidemic taste for poetry. Works of theology and science, sacred and profane history, legends and romances, every thing was put into rhime; even the Rules of the Benedictines, and the Customs of Normandy. Thibaut, King of Navarre, first intermixed, in an orderly manner, masculine and feminine (single and double) rhimes. Monseigneur Gace Brulez, Monseigneur Thibaut

Thibaut de Blazon, the Castellans of Couci and of Arras, the Count of Anjou, the Duke of Brabant, and the Vidam of Chartres, were numbered among the most agreeable authors of quality in the thirteenth century.

In the reign of Saint Louis, especially, a taste for romantic poetry made a great progress: but such was the ignorance of the writing class, that, in the illuminated ornaments of a manuscript-poem, concerning Alexander, he is represented in a surcoat, his followers are bishops and barons, and his palace is a moated castle with towers at the corners; and this in strict conformity to the description of the text. In another manuscript, in which the death and funeral of Julius Cæsar are delineated, his body is preceded by a crucifix, and by holy water; and a procession of monks follows him to the grave. Among the writers who most surpass the general ignorance of the times, are to be noticed *Ville-Hardouin*, *Guillaume Guiart*, *Guillaume de Nangis*, and *Joinville*: the latter, especially, has a plain and attractive style. Having been present at the events which he describes, he paints them with a nakedness of nature which is alike diverting and instructive, and of which modern history has lost the knack.

All considerable libraries, which contain manuscripts of the fourteenth century, afford tragedies in Latin rhime: they were represented by the monks in the chapels of their convents. *Du Boulay* refers the tragedy of Saint Catharine to the year 1146. In a tragedy composed under the first Henry of France, Virgil accompanies the prophets to adore Christ at his Nativity, and joins with them in the choral *benedicamus* which finishes the play.

Richard I. of England attracted to his court many French poets, and story-tellers; who were in his time throughout Europe so fashionable, that *Muratori* mentions in his Annals a regulation of the magistrates of Bologna, made in 1228, which forbids the *French* singers to hold forth in public squares. The University of Paris, adorned with many privileges by Philip Augustus, received others from Saint Louis: the number of colleges was augmented; and the King's confessor, Robert of Sorbonne, endowed that college, which has since become so celebrated under his name. Virgil and Ovid were read and quoted by all. Medicine revived, — and Hippocrates was explored.

Among the more conspicuous writers of the 14th century, are *Eustace Deschamps* and *Guillaume de Machault:* but pedantry was now acquiring fashion. The superficial zeal, which had inspired so many trifiers of the last age, began to be despised; and the mincing poetry of the galant, or the endless tale of the ballad-

ballad-monger, was no longer imitated. Under the name of *Mysteries*, the acts of Saints and Martyrs were eagerly translated into dialogue: *Rutebeuf* composed the first semblances of tragedy: Livy was translated by *Pierre Berchewre*; and *Froissart* founded an original reputation in history. Charles V. of France, surnamed *the Sage*, patronized various translations, and appointed *Gilles Mallet* to be keeper of his library; who, in 1375, made a catalogue of it, and reckoned 910 manuscript-volumes. This was deemed a considerable collection in ages which preceded the printing-press: it was kept in a tower of the Louvre; and it formed the nucleus of that library which now passes for the completest in the world.

The invention of printing, which came into use about 1450, gave stability and diffusion to the subsequent efforts of authorship. The writers of the age of Francis the First are numerous and notorious: but still they begin to require a glossary. After the introduction of Italian literature, and the revived study of the antients, the French language underwent new changes, and only acquired under Louis XIV. its present form. The necessity of providing interpretative works for every previous era of its condition was early felt. In 1655, *Borel*, a physician, published his valuable *Trésor des Antiquités Françaises*; which, though defective, as first essays usually are, contains much curious information. In 1766, *Lacombe* sent forth his *Dictionnaire du vieux Langage*; to which he afterward attached a supplement: but, though he added to the previous stock of words, his explanations are not critically just, nor are his quotations carefully copied. In 1777, *Jean François* printed his *Dictionnaire Walon Roman Tudesque*; which is a collection of living provincialisms rather than of obsolete words, and which is especially excellent for the interpretation of words in use near Swisserland, and along the Rhine.

Of all these sources, M. ROQUEFORT has availed himself; and also of a manuscript-glossary compiled by *Barbazan*, the Tyrwhitt of France, the editor of their Canterbury Tales, the *Fabliaux et Contes des Poëtes Français*, mentioned in our subsequent article. He brings into the field of labour, besides these helpers, a competent acquaintance with the antient and manuscript-literature of his country; that command of libraries which is the privilege of the Parisian author; and a freedom from prejudice, which prevents him from being bent on discovering Celtic traces, or Cimbric traces, or Teutonic traces, in every strange word, and which is contented to look for its derivation into the history of its appearance. The older forms of a given word describe the pronunciation of its real root. This is the sound canon of the present etymologist.

Of

Of the manner in which M. ROQUEFORT has performed this task, a better idea may be formed by a short extract, than by a long character. We will select it, not from among the early letters, which always obtain a preference of attention with dictionary-makers, but from the second volume, when the fatigues of authorship were beginning to induce some relaxation of attention. We take a portion of the words beginning with *K.*

'K: *Cette lettre étoit fort en usage dans la langue Françoise, dans les* XI *et* XII^e *siècles, et même dans le commencement du* XIII^e; *mais à la fin elle commença à être moins fréquente, et disparut presqu'entièrement dans le* XIV^e *siècle; elle s'y rétrouve cependant encore, mais dans des copies d'ouvrages composés plus anciennement, et dont les copistes ont voulu conserver l'orthographe. Elle est toujours employée pour,* ca, ce, cha *et* qua. *Borel estime que cette lettre étoit un reste du langage que Pharamond (qui étoit Allemand) avoit apporté en France; et en effet, dit-il, elle est fort en usage en Allemagne, et dans tous les pays septentrionaux; il ajoute qu'autrefois on flétrissoit de la lettre* k *les calomniateurs, qu'on leur appliquoit sur le front avec un fer rouge, et que par cette raison ils étoient appelés* kappophori. *Il dit encore que quelques-uns croient que notre mot* cape, *ou* chape, *vient de cette lettre, parce qu'elle en a la figure; mais Barbazan pense, avec raison, que ces mots viennent de* caput, *parce que l'on n'appelle proprement* cape *ou* chape, *que le vêtement qui couvre de la tête aux pieds.*

'*Ka, lisez* k'a: *Qu'à, que à, qui à.*

'*Kabal,* Kapal: *Capital, fonds entiers de quelque tout, ce que l'on possède;* capitalis. *Voyez Cabal.*

'*Kabal: Monture, cheval;* caballus. *Voyez Cabal.*

'*Kaban: Manteau de berger.*

'*Kabas: Panier pour aller au marché; du Grec* kabos. *Voyez Cabas.*

'*Kabasset: Casque, armure de tête.*

'*Kache,* kace: *Poursuite en justice, amende; le plaisir de la chasse;* quassatio.

'*Kachéor,* kacéor, kachiere, kachierre, kacierres: *Chasseur, veneur; de* quassare, *dont on a fait, dans la bas. lat.* caciare, chaciare. *Voyez Cachier.*

'*Fins Chevaliers angoisseux,*
Qui a perdu son harnois,
Ne vielle, cui artli feu,
Maison, vigne, et blé et pois,
Ne kachiere, *qui prend sois,*
Ne moigne luxurieux,
N'est envers moi angoisseux,
Que je ne soie de ceus,
Qui aiment de sur leur pois.
XXVI Chanson du Roy de Navarre.

'*Kacier,* kacher: *Chasser, jouir du plaisir de la chasse.*

'*Kadeau,* kadel, kadele: *Jeune chien; de* canis.

'*Kadene,* kaene, kaïene, kaïne: *Chaîne, lien, attache;* catena.

'*Kaênê: Enchaîné.*

'*Kabourde:*

' *Kahourde : Concombre.*
' *Kahus : Entêté, obstiné, têtu, opiniâtre ; de* caput.
' *Kai : Barreaux, grille de fer.*
' *Kaiaux : Jouets ou joujous d'enfans.*
' *Kaier : Chandelle de cire, flambeau.*
' *Kaière,* kadere, kaïelle : *Fauteuil, siége, chaise, chaire ;* cathedra.

' *Je voi mervoilles hui c'est jour,*
Dont Sainte Glise est coustumiere,
Ele fait lampe sans lumiere,
Car on met le fol en kaière,
Et cil qui sont de sens majours,
Sont vil et rebouté arriere.
Miserere du Reclus de Moliens, strophe 4.

' *Kaillurs, lisez* k'aillurs : *Qu'ailleurs, qu'autre part ; d'*aliorsùm.

' *Ensurketut devez saver*
Ke le Rei la gent plus honurer,
Déit en sa Curt veraiement,
E en consistoire ensement
Plus k'aillurs, *kar dunc apent*
Al Rei sées fere dréit à la gent,
K'aillurs *sunt à tort grevez,*
Là déivent estre relevez.
Les Enseignemens d'Aristote.

' *Kains : Nom propre, Caïn.*
' Kains *offri, s'offri Abel,*
Mais au plus gent don, n'au plus bel,
Ne fist pas Diex plus bel semblant.
Miserere du Reclus de Moliens, strophe 74.

' *Kaïr : Renverser, culbuter, tomber ;* cadere.
' *Kaitif,* kaitis ; *au fém.* kaitive : *Misérable, malheureux, infortuné ;* captivus.
' *Kaitiveté : Malheur, infortune ;* captivitas.
' *Kal, lisez* k'al : *Qu'à, qu'au.*
' *Kalamay : La fête de la Chandeleur.*
' *Kalamel : Chalumeau.*
' *Kalenburdenes : Discours vagues et inutiles, baliverne, sottise, petits excès de jeunesse.*
' *Kalende : Nom donné aux conférences des curés et aux confréries, qui se tenoient ou s'assembloient le premier jour de chaque mois.*
' *Kalendier : Calendrier.*
' *Kalendre : Cigale, insecte.*
' *Kallemaine, pour Charlemagne ;* Carolus-Magnus, *formé du Saxon* kerl, *fort, vigoureux ; et du Latin* magnus.

' *Moult jert li regnes desréus,*
Apouriez, et dechéus
De sa hautesce Souveraine,
Puis la mort au Rey Kallemaine.
Guill. Guiart, fol. 11. R°.

' *Kallen :*

'*Kallex : Charles, nom d'homme.*
'*Kambre : Appartement, logis, chambre ;* camera.
'*Kambrelanc,* kamberlenc : *Chambellan, valet-de-chambre.*
'*Kamousser : Blesser, meurtrir, écraser.*
'*Kanabustin Tablettes, journal.*

'*Plourez, amant, car vraie amours est morte*
En chest païs, jamais ne le verrez,
Anuit par nuit vient buscant à no porte
L'arme de li qu'enportoit ses mauffez ;
Mais tant me fist li Dyables de bonteu,
L'arme mit jus tant qu'ele ot trois oés,
Pus et par ces oés iert li mons retenus,
Che truis lisant en un kanabustin
Où je le mis en escrit ier matin.
Servantois et Sotes Chansons, Mss. du 14^e^ siècle, fonds de l'Eglise de Paris, fol. 310.

'*Kanaster : Panier, manne à emballer des marchandises ;* canistrum. *Voyez Canistre.*
'*Kankal, lisez* kank'al : *Tout ce qu'à, tout ce qu'au.*

'*Al Rei ki soléit dunkes tréiter*
Des grans besoignes à espléiter,
Les aventures esclarir è mustrer,
E les besoignes parfurnier,
E kank'al *regne è à la gent,*
Apendist de mustrer léaument.
Les Enseignemens d'Aristote.

'*Kanne : Pot, cruche ;* canna.
'*Kanoisne : Chanoine.*
'*Kansoun,* kanson, kansou, kantsou : *Chanson, petit poëme fort court, qui roule ordinairement sur des aventures d'amour ; de* canticum, *et non de* cantus sonus.
'*Kant : Tant, autant, combien ;* quantum. Kant k'il avoit : *Tout ce qu'il possédoit, tout son avoir.*
'*Kant : Lorsque, quand ;* quandò.
'*Kant : Chant, action de chanter ;* cantus ; *d'où* kanter, kantar, *chanter ;* cantare ; *en anc. Prov.* cantar.
'*Kantadour,* kantaïre : *Chanteur, chantre ;* cantator.
'*Kantref : Canton composé de cent villages.*'

We are surprized not to find the word *Kaynard,* synonymous with *Caignard,* dog, which our Chaucer borrows from the French, and which *Menage* had explained.

In this manner, rare words are accompanied both by their French synonyms, and by their Latin roots ; and it is asserted that twenty-five thousand words, not contained in the common French vocabularies, are here explained. Agreeable quotations from curious and inedited works are copiously interspersed ; and a vast treasury of erudition, to which the poets of every

every European nation had formerly access, is once more opened to inspection.

Be it allowed us to wish, that the letter K might recover the popularity which it appears to have enjoyed in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. It represents invariably one distinct sound; whereas the letter *c*, which has been substituted for it, even in words derived from the Greek, represents the several sounds of *k*, of *s*, and of *ts*; as in *cake*, *chaise*, *mice*, and *much*. Such letters delay for many months every child who is learning to read; puzzle every foreigner who tries to pronounce by the book; torment the sensibilities of every one who has a taste for consistency; and irritate to pedagogical indignation, like a dunce's class, the temper of the philosophical grammarian.

British archæologists may derive numberless useful hints from the study of this Glossary. It will guide them to passages which our antient poets were consciously imitating, will explain to them allusions which disuse had obscured, and will complete their knowlege of customs which the antiquary has but imperfectly deciphered. Our own language has been prodigiously enriched with French words in their *Romanse* form; and, as we occasionally use them still in the sense which they possessed in old French, it is through a French glossary that the English philologer must often travel in search of definition.

This dictionary has moreover the great and the rare merit of being paged; which, for purposes of citation and of reference, is of no slight importance, especially to those who make manuscript-notes of their reading. The work deserves imitation in our own tongue; we have glossaries to Chaucer, to Spenser, and to individual writings of note: but we have no glossary on a broad and comprehensive scale, accommodated to the manuscript as well as the printed literature of our forefathers; portably concise, yet displaying the investigation of the etymologist, the erudition of the bibliographer, and the information of the antiquary.

ART. VI. *Fabliaux et Contes des Poëtes François*, &c.; *i. e.* Fables and Tales of the French Poets of the Eleventh, Twelfth, Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Centuries; selected from the best Authors. Published by BARBAZAN. New Edition, augmented, and revised by the MSS. in the Imperial Library, by M. *Méon*. 8vo. 4 Vols. Paris. Imported by Payne and Eggs.

THE fables and tales here reprinted were originally published during the year 1756 by M. BARBAZAN, in three small volumes. The work was then deservedly popular, as forming an essential document in the history of European poetry, and indi-

indicating the source of many stories which the echoes of tradition have repeated from age to age. As an editor, however, M. BARBAZAN displayed perhaps more judgment than industry; and if he selected with propriety, he was contented to copy with negligence. His successor, M. *Méon*, has not merely reprinted the former collection: he has re-compared the text with the manuscripts whence it was derived, has corrected it by a collation of the parallel copies accumulated in the Louvre, and has often substituted the reading of a more authentic manuscript for that which had been adopted. He has moreover added nearly a whole volume of analogous materials, valuable for their genuine antiquity, and curious for their popular favour.

It is true, however, that the best of these tales have been already re-told by M. *Legrand*, in modern French prose; which collection has passed into our language and is well known. The present publication contains many of his originals, and preserves in their pristine aukwardness, and antique garrulity, the narrations which he has rendered so graceful and so compact. The antiquary will delight to look back on the Gothic monuments, thus chipped into a tasteful simplicity; and he may perhaps prefer their grotesque carvings, parasitical foliage, and branchy fretwork, to the neat and trim undress of modern elegance.

A preliminary dissertation on the Origin of the French Tongue opens the first volume. It states that the Latin language, universally spred over Gaul by the colonists, schools, and judicial institutions, of the Romans, gradually took among the common people a form tending to the vernacular French. The Christian clergy first employed this provincial Roman, this rustic dialect, in public and solemn oratory; and from the pulpit it passed into books of piety, and next into tales, metrical romances, and popular songs. The Council of Tours, held in 813, commanded the bishops to get the Homilies translated into the *rustic Roman* tongue; and the coronation-oath was taken in it by the son of Charlemagne. Sermons are preserved of Saint Bernard, preached in 1137, which may be considered as forming the first literary trophies of the French language. The earliest translation, except of certain prayers and portions of Scripture, is that of Cato's Distichs, by *Adam du Suel*, which was made at the beginning of the twelfth century. In 1290, *Jacquemart Gielée* wrote or imported the *Roman du Renart*; which, under the name of *Renard the Fox*, became a popular tale, or fable, both in English and in German. — The dissertation concludes by pointing out the necessity of a glossary *; and by endeavouring to obtain the regret of living authors in behalf

* See the preceding Article.

of certain obsolete usages of the old French tongue. One of these is the practice of describing the Greek *phi* by a modern *f*, as in *filosofie*. — Etymological investigations conclude an agreeable but desultory disquisition.

The first poem is intitled *L'Ordene de Chevalerie*, and is ascribed to Hugh of Tiberias, who accompanied Godfrey of Bouillon into the Holy Land, was taken prisoner by Saladin, very handsomely treated, and set at liberty for conferring on the sultan the order of knighthood. A prose account follows of the same transaction.

Thirdly occurs the legend of a knight, more pious than courageous, who chose to attend mass, and to linger there, while he was expected at the tournament. When he rejoined the martial party, he found that he had won the prize; the holy Virgin having appeared in his stead in a suit of armour, and gained it for him.

IV. A fisherman, in rescuing from the waves a drowning man, puts out his eye: the ungrateful wretch brings an action for damages against his benefactor; and the Judge orders him to be thrown into the sea at the same spot, whenever he claims the damages awarded.

V. A Legend of Saint Martin of Tours. — VI. A Story of a Mulberry-stealer. — VII. An Illustration of the Proverb, *the biter bitten*. — VIII. The *Congées* of Arras. These poems are three in number; and several English names occur in them, such as (p. 130.) Simon Waggon, and (p. 133.) John Wasket, and (p. 137.) Robert Werry; so that the poet seems to have been much at home on both sides of the Channel: he calls himself *Jehan Bodel*.

IX. The Battle of the Wines. A dispute arises between Messieurs *Moselle*, *Champagne*, *Burgundy*, &c. about their relative merit.

> '*Li prestres Engleire estoit*
> *Qui volontiers les engorgeoit*,'

says the poet; and it is to the English clergy that he intrusts the office of being umpires.

X. The Tooth. This seems to be the rhimed advertisement of a dentist named *Archevesques*.

XI. The Palfrey. — XII. The Knight of the Barrel. — XIII. The Monk in Love. — XIV. Saint Leocada of Toledo. We suspect this poem to be of Provençal original: it includes (p. 333.) a long list of heroes of romance not known in Norman literature: *Rabelais* alludes to it.

XV. A Miracle of our Lady.

XVI. Cortois of Arras. This poem exhibits the singularity of repeated variations of metre. Composed habitually in four-

feet iambic verses, it occasionally adopts quatrains of alexandrines.

XVII. Ancassin and Nicolette is the last and the best tale in the volume; it is drawn up in prose, with intervals of verse set to music, as if the story-tellers of yore occasionally passed from conversation to song. The substance of the narration is well known from Way's *Fabliaux*, a work noticed by us in Vol. xxiii. p. 174. A glossary terminates the volume.

The second volume offers a greater if not a more interesting variety. It is ushered in by three dissertations, on the provincial dialects of France which have a Cimbric origin, such as the Bas-breton; on the provincial dialects of France which have a Celtic origin, such as the Helvetic; and on certain questionable etymologies. Only the first of these has any extent, or merits much attention.

The stories are, 1. Advice of a Father to his Son. 2. The Knight with two Friends. 3. The Two Loyal Friends. 4. Scald-head and Hunch-back; 5. The Man and the Serpent; 6. Epilogue: these three form a connected whole. 7. The Two Clerks. 8. The Bad Woman. 9. The Fabler. 10. The Old Woman and the Good Lady. 11. The Woman imprisoned in a Tower. 12. The Deposit denied. 13. The Oil adjudged. 14. Why prefer the High Road? 15. The Two Burghers and the Countryman. 16. The Tailor and Serjeant. 17. The Two Lechers. 18. The Father's Advice. 19. The Countryman and the Bird. 20. The Countryman and the Wolf. 21. The Thief and the Moon. 22. Marien. 23. The Merchant who went to see his Brother. 24. The Father and the Son. 25. Maimon the Lazy. 26. Alexander. 27. The Thief and the Treasure. 28. The Philosopher in the Church-yard. 29. How to provide for one's Soul. 30. The Ladies' Punishment. 31. Saint Magloire. 32. The Streets of Paris. 33. The Cries of Paris. This poem is worth reading, as it throws great light on the manners, diet, and customs, of the close of the thirteenth century, at which time flourished the author, *Guillaume de Villeneuve*. Warm baths form one of the cries. Sea-fish, and sea-fowl of various kinds, occasion others; so that Paris seems to have been better supplied formerly than latterly from the coast. Oatmeal is cried by the name *Gruel*, a word which has been retained in our language. Walnut-oil occurs. At line 77. we have *Pain por Dieu*, signifying, probably, wafers for consecration. We observe also fresh rushes, to strew in apartments: cotton-candles, in contradistinction to rush-lights: substitutes for the militia: chesnuts of Lombardy: figs of Malta, here called *figues de Melites*; and soap from abroad, *savon d'outremer*; so that it

was

was not yet made in France. To announce a death, the bell-man is employed to approach the doors of neighbours and friends, to ring his bell, and bid them pray for the soul of the departed. Pie-boys occur, who toss up with their customers, and who are called at the supper-hour into the lodgings of bachelors: this became an abuse which the police had occasion to suppress. — 34. The Ministers of Paris. 35. The Monastic orders of Paris. 36. The Song of the Friars. 37. The Ditty of the Fair. 38. The Bible of Guiot, which contains much satirical matter against physicians. 39. The Bible of Berze. 40. The Varlet married at Notre-dame. 41. Miracle of the Virgin. 42. Judgment of Solomon. 43. The Priest reciting the Passion. This volume again terminates with a glossary, which is inconveniently imperfect, and does not suffice to explain the words occurring in the prefixed text.

Volume iii. is introduced by a good preface, including a dissertation on the prosody of the early poets. The author, M. Barbazan, appears in the progress of his task to have learned something of his trade; and, after having completed two volumes of selections from the antient writers, to have at length acquired a respectable knowlege of their relative age, of their *linguacious* peculiarities, and of their instructive contents.

The stories are, 1. The Boor dubbed Physician. 2. The Priest crucified. 3. The poor Mercer. 4. The Cow and the Priest. 5. The Knights and the Clerks. 6. The Lady in the Minster. 7. Fabliau de la Merde. 8. The Purse full of sense. 9. The Wolf and the Ass. 10. The Ass and the Dog. 11. The Woman of a Hundred. 12. The Air-bag. 13. Testament of the Ass. 14. Friar Denis. 15. Charlot the Jew. 16. The Cooler. 17. The Lay of Aristotle. 18. The Lay of the little Bird. 19. The Court of Paradise. 20. The Valet of Twelve. 21. The Truant old Woman. 22. The Burgess of Orleans. 23. The Cordelier. 24. The Ditty of the Partridges. 25. The Provost. 26. The Priest with Two Mothers. 27. The Two Horses. 28. False Shame. 29. A second Copy of the same in other Metre. 30. The Child in the Sun. 31. The Three Ladies who found a Ring. 32. The Knight Confessor to his Wife. 33. Gombert. 34. The Three Hunch-backs. 35. The Two Changers. 36. The Buffet. 37. The Knight in Red. 38. Saint Peter and the Juggler. 39. Constant Duhamel. 40. The Fable of Aloul. 41. Boivin of Provence. 42. The Castellan of Saint Giles. 43. Sir Hain and Lady Anieuse. 44. Estula. 45. The Three Blind Men. 46. The title of this story cannot be

translated decently; it describes a knight gifted by the fairies with a power of inflicting on ladies a compulsory sort of *ventriloquism*, which lays open a diverting confessional. *Diderot* has derived hence the basis of his *Bijoux Indiscrets*. It is moreover remarkable for borrowing its exordium from the Bahar-danush; so that *Guerins*, the reputed author, had probably visited the Holy Land, and there acquired a tincture of oriental reading. The knight by chance discovers three Peries bathing, steals their robes, and obtains for restoring them a talismanic gift. 47. The Magic Ring. 48. Gauteron and Marion. 49. Melampygus. 50. The Flemish Lady. 51. The Modest Girl. 52. The Widow. 53. The Judgment of Paris. 54. The Fisherman. To this volume again is appended its glossary.

In the fourth volume, we have six poems of the former edition, and thirty-six hitherto inedited. The stories are, 1. The Butcher of Abbeville. He is returning from a fair, and compelled to remain all night in a village which has no inn. Applying to the clergyman for a lodging, he is refused; and, as he is going away, he meets sheep belonging to his reverence, kills one of them, and offers a part of it as the price of hospitality. The priest now relents, orders for him a mutton-chop, and gives him a bed. With the other half of the sheep, the butcher gains the good graces of his host's favourite maid-servant; leaving him in the morning to find out that his own sheep had paid for all. 2. The Long Night. 3. The Lay of Graelent. This relates the story of a knight with whom the Queen of Brittany falls in love. He persists in observing his duty to the King; on which she accuses him of an adulterous attempt, and he is condemned to death: but, on the point of execution, he is saved. This poem is written by *Marie de France*. 4. The Battle of Carnival and Lent. 5. The Usurer's Paternoster. 6. The Usurer's Creed. 7. The Pleader saved. 8. The Sexton and the Knight's Lady. 9. Narcissus. 10. Coquaigne. This celebrated poem describes a libertine's paradise. Not only the rivers are of wine, and the geese swim about ready roasted, asking to be eaten, but tailors and shoemakers give away the most fashionable small clothes and boots; the ladies are as complaisant as the houries of Mohammed; and a fountain of youth repairs the charms and vigor of them and their admirers. Whoever falls asleep in this happy country is rewarded at the rate of sixpence for the forenoon:

> *'Cil qui dort jusqu' à midi*
> *Gagne cinq sols et demi.'*

11. The

11. The Priest and the Lady. 12. The Squirrel. 13. In which the Author calls a Spade, a Spade. 14. The Girl Watering a Foal. 15. The Lover to let. 16. Audigier. 17. The Three Thieves. 18. The Crane. 19. The Silly Knight. 20. The Blacksmith of Creil. 21. The Flighty Damsel. 22. The Peck of Oats. 23. Berengier. 24. Chastelaine de Vergy. This interesting story has served for the ground-work of a popular romance, but is perhaps there overloaded with incidents little in the character of the times: here it may again prompt some happier effort at imitation. 25. Pyramus and Thisbe. 26. Florance and Blanche. 27. The Good Woman. 28. The Four Wishes. 29. The Tresses. 30. The Falcon. 31. The Priest and Alice. 32. The Paternoster of Love. 33. The Creed of the Rake. 34. Destourmi. 35. The Saddle-cloth parted. 36. Women, Dice, and Dinners. To this volume also is added an appropriate but incomplete glossary.

The entire work merits a place in the library of an English antiquary; since many passages, which Chaucer and others of our early poets knew, recollected, and imitated, will here be detected in their original form. Those stories which found favour in the twelfth century, and which circulated in the European literature of that age among all nations, are here brought together in the best form which they acquired among our forefathers; and those which left most impression, and are repeatedly introduced in their compositions, may deserve to employ the pens of modern poets, and to be consecrated in the regenerating waters of Helicon to a purer immortality. Obscene passages and allusions occur in many of these stories, especially those in the third volume: but allowance is to be made for the simplicity of antient manners, which called many things by plain names without meaning any harm.

An arrangement of materials more severely chronological, and additional notices concerning the tributary poets and poems, would have added value to this publication: but we are glad to see so good a selection of the old metrical tales of the French, executed with so faithful an adherence to the original text.

ART. VII. *Mémoires de la Classe des Sciences*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of the National Institute of France, Vols. VII.—X.

[*Article continued from the Appendix to* Vol. lxx. p. 516—532.]

MATHEMATICS, ASTRONOMY, &c. Vol. VII.

MEMOIR on the Orbit of the Comet of 1770. By M. BURCKHARDT.—Perhaps, scarcely any object of astronomical inquiry has engaged the attention of mathematicians more than

the determination of the orbit of this comet. It was first discovered by M. *Messier*, in the summer of 1770, and was observed by him with the utmost exactitude and perseverance, during the whole period of its being visible, as well as by many other able astronomers. Its orbit was afterward computed with equal scrupulousness by *Pingrè*, *Laxell*, and others, most of whom agreed very nearly in giving to it the same elements; finding it to be an ellipse of comparatively small excentricity, very little inclined to the plane of the ecliptic, and the comet itself performing its revolution in about five years and a half. Astronomers therefore anxiously waited the period at which its re-appearance was to be expected, and particularly in 1781: but, to their great regret and disappointment, it has never since fallen under their observation. Neither could it be ascertained that any of the comets of which we have the elements, to the amount of sixty-two, previously to 1770, were the same as that which then appeared. Consequently, though it seemed perfectly reasonable to repose an entire confidence in the result of so many independent computations, all agreeing very nearly with each other, yet the circumstance of the comet never having fallen under the eye of any astronomer either before or since 1770 could not but throw some doubt on the accuracy of those determinations.

These circumstances induced the National Institute to re-propose the problem as a prize-essay; and M. BURCKHARDT, whose indefatigable exertions in the cause of true astronomical science, are so well known and appreciated, undertook the whole calculation *de novo*, without availing himself of any former approximation, and on the most general principles: having first procured a copy of the original observations of M. *Messier*, in order to avoid any errors that might have found their way into the printed copies, from which other astronomers had made their computations: — in short, every possible precaution was taken to secure the due degree of accuracy in every respect. After a long and laborious calculation, the results of it were found to coincide very nearly with those above mentioned; so that no possible doubt can now be entertained on this subject.

However difficult, therefore, it may be to account for this comet not having been observed before or after 1770, although its period of revolution is only about five years and a half, yet the fact itself seems to be incontrovertible, and ought to be traced to some competent physical cause. M. BURCKHARDT enters on this question in the sixth section of his memoir; which, as it contains some novel ideas on this interesting subject, we will transcribe.

'I flatter myself with having proved, on the most incontestible principles, in the preceding sections, that no parabola, nor hyperbola, nor

nor any very excentric ellipse, will correspond with the observations made on the comet of 1770; and that this comet actually describes an orbit, agreeing with a period of revolution of five years and a half. The difficult question also, "Why had we not before or have we not since seen a comet, whose period of revolution is of such short duration?" is advanced at least one step; because we are now assured that it is actually to the attractions of Jupiter that we must have recourse for the explanation of this interesting phænomenon in the system of the world. *Laxell* thought that the attractions of Jupiter in 1767 had very considerably diminished the period of revolution of this comet; and that the same attractions had in 1779 rendered its orbit of greater excentricity: an hypothesis which was afterward adopted by *Boscovich*. It seems difficult, however, to admit that two such opposite effects were produced by the same cause, acting under nearly the same circumstances. If we allow a total change of orbit, of which astronomy furnishes no example, it would be much more probable to suppose that the same effects were produced in both cases by the attractive force of Jupiter; and that this force, which is supposed to have shortened the period of Revolution in 1767, had again diminished it in 1779, and in a manner much more considerable, because the comet approached much nearer to Jupiter in the latter year than in the former. Even this distance might be still farther diminished by the attraction itself; and the comet might perhaps have augmented the number of Jupiter's satellites without this being perceived by astronomers. In fact, the distance of this comet from the sun would be, in that case, five times greater than it was at the instant when it ceased to be visible in 1770; and its distance from the earth would be at least four times greater than it was at the same period: so that the comet would have four times less light than in 1770, which would necessarily be still farther diminished by the vicinity of Jupiter. Supposing this change, therefore, to have really taken place, we have no reason to be astonished at its not having been observed even with our best telescopes.'

Although, however, M. Burckhardt thinks that such a change is not impossible, and that it is even more probable than that which was indicated by *Laxell*, yet he is anxious to account for the comet's non-appearance on principles less repugnant to the analogy observed in the various bodies of our system; and he has shewn that, with an orbit nearly permanent, it may have repeatedly passed its perihelion without having been perceived. He wishes much to encourage astronomers, and mathematicians, to persevere in completing this part of our astronomical knowlege. If we could once obtain another sight of the comet, we should never again experience the same difficulty: mathematicians would doubtless unite with astronomers in calculating the instant and place at which it ought to appear. 'The interval of thirty years,' continues the author, 'during which period it would be necessary to calculate the attractions, bespeaks a stupendous undertaking. Yet, if the great geometer (*La*

Place), who has enriched physical astronomy with so many important discoveries, wishes to avail himself of the necessary formulæ for the accomplishment of this object, and if he thinks that any confidence can be placed in the ultimate result, the author of this memoir will with pleasure attempt the laborious task.'

Analysis of Triangles traced on the Surface of a Spheroid. By A. M. LEGENDRE. — In all geodetic operations, the calculations of the sides and angles of the triangles traced on the terrestrial surface have been made on the same principles as if the earth had been a perfect sphere; and some doubt had therefore been entertained, whether this erroneous hypothesis might not in some measure have affected the truth of the results thence derived. M. LEGENDRE himself felt some hesitation on this subject; which, he observes, seemed to be the better founded, because we cannot assimilate a spheroidal and a spherical triangle. Even a spheroidal triangle cannot be supposed to be turned about one of its summits, without ceasing to coincide with the spheroidal surface; and much less will it coincide with it if transferred to a different part of the surface which has not the same latitude.

In order, therefore, to resolve this difficulty, and to ascertain the amount of the errors which might thus have been introduced into the several geodetical operations, this mathematician undertook a complete investigation of spheroidal triangles; in which, besides the parts requisite for the solution of spherical triangles, it was necessary to introduce the latitude of the summit of the triangle, the azimuth of one of its sides, and the ratio of the two axes of the spheroid. He institutes his investigation with this complete generality, and thence proceeds to deduce an expression for the area of such a triangle, the result of which is that no appreciable error will arise, in the triangles employed in geodetical operations, by considering them as spherical; nor in any in which the sides are small in comparison with a great circle of the sphere.

'It follows,' says the author, 'from the preceding theorem, that the triangles traced on the surface of a spheroid (and we have principally in view the triangles formed in geodetical operations, of which the sides may extend to a degree or even more,) may be calculated on the same principles as small triangles traced on the surface of a sphere; and both of them may be reduced to rectilinear triangles, by diminishing their angles, each by a quantity equal to one-third of the area of a similar triangle, described on a sphere whose semi axis is = 1.

'All spheroidal trigonometry is comprized in this one principle; and it is also obvious that it extends still more generally to every triangle

triangle formed on any surface differing but little from a sphere; as we may suppose that such a surface will nearly coincide with an elliptic spheroid, disposed in such a manner that the vertical sections of the greatest and the least curvature, which always cut each other at right angles in one solid, may coincide with the similar sections and equal arcs in the other solid: wherefore the triangle common to both surfaces will possess the same properties with spherical triangles. The solution of spheroidal triangles, of which the sides are small with regard to the dimensions of the spheroid, depends therefore immediately on that of rectilinear triangles; not only when the spheroid is elliptical and of revolution, but when it is in any manner irregular, provided only that it differs but little from a sphere.'

'*Notes on the Planet discovered by M. Harding.* By J. C. BURCKHARDT.

Second Correction of the Elements of the new Planet. By the Same.—M. BURCKHARDT, who suffers no opportunity of evincing his ardour in the cause of astronomy to escape, availed himself of the first series of observations made on this planet, which has since been named *Juno*, to compute the elements of its orbit. In the first of the above memoirs, from the want of a greater number of observations, he failed to obtain the most accurate results, which are therefore corrected in his second paper, whence we abstract the elements:

Ascending node,	171° 6′ 0″
Inclination,	15° 5′ 0″
Perihelion in 1805,	52° 49′ 33″
Excentricity,	0.25096
Semi axis-major,	2.657
Revolution,	1582 days.

On the Comets of 1784 *and* 1762. By the Same.—The first of these comets was observed by M. *Dangos* (who discovered it) on the 10th and 14th of April only, bad weather having prevented his farther observations; and it was not seen by any other person: consequently, little confidence can be given to the results obtained from these data, and we think that it is useless to detail them.

The comet of 1762 was observed under much more favourable circumstances, by M. *Messier*, and the determination of its orbit was attempted by five different astronomers, no one of which could avoid errors of four or five minutes. All these orbits differed considerably the one from the other; and great uncertainty prevailed in all respects. Similar difficulties had been experienced with regard to the comets of 1763, 1771, and 1773; and it began to be suspected, that little or no dependance could be placed on our present knowlege of the astronomy of comets. These circumstances induced

M. BURCK-

M. BURCKHARDT to re-compute the orbit of this comet; and, being favoured with the original observations by M. *Messier*, he soon discovered that the uncertainty experienced with regard to the elements of its orbit had arisen from a slight mistake in the reductions of the observed angles. He candidly acknowleges that he should probably himself have committed this error, had he not been possessed of the original observations; in which not any of the necessary reductions had been made: — a principle which M. BURCKHARDT thinks is very proper, recommending them in all cases to be left to the care of those astronomers who may wish to employ them. This, however, seems to have been the source of the former errors; which being corrected, the elements were obtained with sufficient accuracy and agreement:

Ascending node,	11° 18° 33′ 5″
Inclination,	85° 38′ 13″
Place of perihelion,	3ˢ 14° 2′
Perihelion distance,	1.0090485
Passage of perihelion,	1762, May 28. 8 h. 11′ 3″,

its motion being direct.

Second Memoir on the Measurement of Heights by the Barometer. By M. RAMOND.—We have already noticed this author's first memoir in our supplement to Vol. lii., N.S., p. 470. The present relates principally to those accidental causes which may affect the results drawn from barometrical measurement; which the author ranges under three distinct classes, *the time of the day*, — *the influence of situation*, — and *the influence of meteors*. We cannot follow him in all his detail: but we shall quote his conclusion, which seems to contain some good practical maxims:

'1. We may expect to have the heights correct, when the observation is made at mid-day and in calm weather, not too much inclined to change, and the two barometers are situated on isolated summits; or when the lower barometer is placed in an open plain, and at a medium distance. In the last case, I prefer even to increase the distance, rather than to approach too near the foot of the mountains, because the advantage of proximity is more than counterbalanced by the perturbations of the descending winds. Except in these circumstances, which may be considered as highly favourable, the errors have no fixed measure; they can only be valued by estimation, and according to the degrees of influence which the experience of the observer may assign to the cause which produces them.

'2. *In general, the heights will be found too little*, 1st, When the observation is made in the morning or the evening. 2dly, When the lower barometer is in a plain, and the upper one is in a narrow deep valley. 3dly, When the wind blows strong from the south; and 4thly, When the weather is tempestuous.

'3. *On the contrary, they will be too great*, 1st, When the observation is made between noon and two or three o'clock, particularly

if the sun be not obscured by clouds. 2dly, When the upper barometer is on the top of a mountain, and the inferior one is placed in a deep valley defended from exterior currents; and 3dly, When a strong north wind prevails, particularly on a mountain, and if it strikes the steepest declivity.

'4. Finally, we may be certain that the errors will be great and variable in every respect, when the difference of the levels is but small, and the two barometers are placed on the same plain, or in the same valley; and still more if they be separated by a chain of mountains. In this last case, the horizontal distance cannot be too little; and, notwithstanding the proximity of the stations, we can in such cases have no confidence except in the mean of a great many observations.

'It is to be observed, however, that the errors which we call *great* with regard to mathematical precision, are often very *inconsiderable* with regard to the object proposed; and, in most cases, the results will be sufficiently exact for engineers or geologists: since the preceding indications of the causes of the most common error will enable them hereafter to avoid the one and to estimate the other.'

Various Astronomical Observations. By M. MESSIER.—These observations relate principally to the passage of Mercury over the sun's disc, on the 9th of November 1802; and a remarkable occultation of the planet Pallas with a small star in the constellation Hercules.

On the total Eclipse of the 16th of June 1806. By JÉRÔME DE LALANDE. — We have here chiefly the details of observations transmitted to M. DE LALANDE from different observatories in Europe and America, of the total solar eclipse which happened on the 16th of June 1806. M. *de Witt*, after having given an account of his observations as to time, &c. at Albany in America, where the eclipse was total, says that many persons besides himself saw a luminous point in the disc of the moon; a phænomenon which has been before remarked, and which appears to prove the existence of lunar volcanoes.

M. *Deferrer*, who likewise made his observations in America, remarked that the lunar disc became a little enlightened 7″ before the total obscurity ended; a circumstance which M. DE LALANDE seems to think can only be attributed to a small lunar atmosphere, the existence of which has been doubted by some astronomers. — The same observer also noticed a slight luminous ring, of about 45″ or 50″ diameter, concentric with the sun; an appearance that has been before seen in other total eclipses; and which the present author ascribes to the illumination of the terrestrial atmosphere, immediately surrounding those parts at which the eclipse is total. The edge of the lunar disc was not well defined, but had the appearance of little columns of very rare vapour. —The darkness was not so great

as it was expected to be: but the birds retired to their nests, and a gentle dew was observed to fall. The duration of the total obscurity was 4′ 37″.

Vol. VIII.

History of the Class of Sciences of the National Institute. Mathematical Part. By Delambre, Perpetual Secretary.—We do not observe much novelty in this department of the present volume; the greater portion of it relating to those memoirs which we have reported in the preceding pages. The only circumstance, indeed, that it seems necessary to mention in this place, is a newly projected construction of a telescope by M. Burckhardt, which is intended in some measure to resemble the Newtonian: that is to say, the small mirror is proposed to be a plane, but the eye-glass will be placed after the manner of the Gregorian. The plane mirror is not to be situated in the focus of the great speculum, but at half the distance; so that the telescope will be only half the length of the former. As, however, this position of the small mirror must necessarily intercept a larger portion of the direct rays from the object, it will require a larger aperture: but some advantage in point of light is expected to be obtained from this construction; and the class accordingly gave directions to M. *Carochè* to make the experiment. A considerable part of the remainder of the History relates, as we have observed, to the preceding memoirs, with a slight notice of the discovery of the planet Vesta, and of the Comet of 1807; an account of some experiments by Count *Rumford*, relative to bodies of greater specific gravity than certain fluids floating on their surfaces; a report of works published since the last meeting of the class; a report relative to conductors of lightning; and a few other subjects, not of sufficient importance to require any particular detail from us. It concludes with a biographical sketch of *Lalande*, of which we gave an account in our Appendix to Vol. lxx.

Memoirs.—*Observations and Figure of the great Nebula in the Girdle of Andromeda, the first that was discovered; and the two small Nebulæ, situated the one above and the other below the great Nebula.* By M. Messier.—The object of this memoir is to furnish astronomers with certain observations of these nebulæ, by which they may be enabled to judge, at some future time, whether the variation in the light and configuration of nebulæ that have been noticed by astronomers be real, or whether they arise merely from an optical deception, in using telescopes of different powers and construction.

On the Construction of new Tables of Jupiter and Saturn, calculated according to the new Division of the Day, and the Circum-

fortune of the Circle. By M. A. BOUVARD.—Of all the tables of the principal planets, those of Jupiter and Saturn are the most difficult to establish with precision; the accuracy of them depending on the exact determination of the elliptic elements, which elliptic elements themselves depend on the precise knowlege of the masses of the planets: whence it is obvious that we can only arrive at the true results by determining at the same time, in a general manner, all the elliptic elements, and the masses on which the perturbations of the planets depend.

The tables of Jupiter and Saturn, published by Halley, were for a long time the only tables employed by astronomers: but, though they were more exact than any which had been previously furnished, yet in 1760 they were erroneous to the amount of 11 minutes for Jupiter, and about 22′ for Saturn. This circumstance induced *Lalande* to construct a new series: but even that celebrated astronomer, notwithstanding all the advantages which he derived from the labours and observations of his predecessors, succeeded little better than Halley had done so many years before. The fact is that it was impossible to form correct tables of these planets, before the recent perfection in the theory of attractions, which was alone sufficient for explaining the true cause of the great inequalities experienced in the observations of them. *Laplace* was the first (see *Mémoires de l'Académie des Sciences*, 1784,) who gave the complete theory of the perturbations of these two planets. *Delambre* afterward constructed his tables, in which the error seldom exceeded half a minute; and even this might have been rendered still less, had the author been in possession of a greater number of modern observations. Some uncertainty remained likewise with regard to the mass of Saturn, and consequently respecting the inequalities of Jupiter. M. BOUVARD, having availed himself of several excellent observations made since 1789, when *Delambre*'s tables were published, and having acquired also a more accurate idea of the mass of Saturn, has formed a new set of tables, which are extremely accurate; the greatest error being only 13″, of which a part may doubtless be attributed to defects of observation.

Various Observations, on the Alterations of the Sabots in the Discharge of Cannon; on the Diminution and Suppression of the Windage; on the Phenomena arising out of such Diminution in Mortar-practice; on the Influence of differently grained Powder, in different Fire Arms; and on the Advantage of Bullets of*

* *Sabots* are cylindrical pieces of heart of oak, attached to a cannon-ball in some artillery experiments, in order to prevent the rolling of the ball in the bore of the piece.

a peculiar

a peculiar Form, called Boulets à Bague de Plomb. By M. GUYTON. — With regard to the first of the above observations, it might have been conceived, *à priori*, that the explosive force of the powder, being first exerted on the *sabot*, would in some measure diminish its length: but the most singular phænomenon remarked in these experiments was the alteration in the figure of it; the explosion having changed the body from a perfect cylinder into a sort of elliptic cylindroid, the axis of its section having been found to be in the ratio of 3 to 2. This flattening of the *sabot* is attributed to the explosion being more rapid in the upper than in the lower part of the bore of the gun; which, the author says, has the effect of pressing the ball down on the lower part of the barrel, and thus making cavities or hollows which ultimately render the piece unfit for service.—M. GUYTON also reports a few experiments and observations relative to that part of the explosive force which escapes at the touch-hole, and which has a tendency to increase its dimensions. This inconvenience, we understand, was experienced in a remarkable manner by the English army in Spain, particularly at the siege of St. Sebastian; nearly the whole of the ordnance employed in the reduction of that fortress having been rendered useless by the augmentation of the vent: which, in some of them, was become sufficiently large to admit of the introduction of two fingers.

The author next gives the detail of several experiments relative to the windage of mortars. It is obvious that a part of the explosive force of the powder must escape between the ball and the internal surface of the mortar; whence it is natural to conclude that, the more the windage is diminished, the greater will be the action of the explosion on the ball. This, indeed, was found universally to be the case, till the windage was reduced to half a millemetre: when, to the great astonishment of every person who was present at the experiments, the range was only about one half of that which occurred under similar circumstances, with a windage of one millemetre. The fact was even doubted by many artillery-officers who were not present, and the experiments were repeated in order to satisfy them as to the truth of the report. Lest the difference in the weight of the balls, the one exceeding the other by ½ a millemetre in diameter, should be supposed to have any influence, the larger one was reduced, by boring it, to the exact weight of the smaller; the powder was of the same quality and quantity; and in fact the discharges took place under like circumstances in every respect. M. *Prony* endeavours to account for this phænomenon, by supposing the horizontal axis of the ball to be shortened, and its vertical axis to become protuberant; thus causing a friction

between the ball and the piece, sufficient to produce the retardation of the ball and the observed defect of its range. Considering, however, that the case is directly the reverse in rifle-barrel guns, in which much more friction is caused, we cannot, even under M. *Prony's* authority, take this as a satisfactory explanation. — The next subject examined in this memoir relates to the influence of the differently-grained powder for different arms; from which it appears that the larger grain should be used for large guns, where the quantity is the greatest, because the explosion is more instantaneous than when a finer grain is employed.

M. GUYTON lastly details the results of experiments made on his *boulets à bague de plomb*; which, in form, are cylindrico-spherical, the cylindrical part being next the charge. A rim of lead is fixed round the centre of the ball, rather exceeding the bore of the gun, which is cut off by the edge of the muzzle in introducing the ball into the piece, so that it acts like a rifle; and, notwithstanding that this bullet weighed near double the usual ball of such a gun, the range, with the same charge and elevation, was very little less and sometimes was even more than that of the bullets of the common form. The great difficulty, however, in introducing the ball, and consequently the time necessary for loading, &c. must render this experiment a matter rather of curiosity than of real utility.

We propose to attend to Vols. ix. and x. in a future article.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VIII. *Correspondance Littéraire*, &c.; *i. e.* The Literary, Philosophical, and Critical Correspondence of Baron GRIMM and of DIDEROT with a German Prince.

[*Article continued from the last Appendix.*]

IN our former article, we noticed only a part of these interesting memoirs; and, from a certain confusion which appears to have attended them in every stage of their publication, the curiosity of the world was not directed to their commencement until it should seem to have been sated by the concluding volumes. Five thick octavos, containing the second part of the Literary Correspondence, and reaching from the year 1770 to 1782, were no sooner published than devoured by Parisian curiosity; a third division, of equal dimensions, and comprizing events, anecdotes, and criticisms, from 1782 to 1790, was still insufficient to satisfy the avidity for this miscellaneous work; and the six volumes including the same subjects from 1753 to 1769, which ought naturally to have ushered in the ten,

ten, have possibly served rather to whet than to allay the appetite for this conversable and amusing book. *

The Parisians, who in this vast gallery of figures behold with complacency their own portraits, may be pardoned the extravagance of their self-admiration: but in London, where these faces were strange, and many of them of grotesque appearance, it was deemed advisable to select those which were more salient from the groupes which surrounded them; and thus, by a judicious arrangement, the cream of the ten former volumes was taken off into four of the London edition, and that of the six latter into three. We suspect that the possessors of the sixteen original octavos are not intitled to boast of many advantages over those who have the seven as they are published here; since the latter retain enough, and more than enough, to satisfy our mitigated curiosity. They pourtray to us Paris, the great, the gay, the literary, and the sportive; and they will not be deemed the less desirable for having omitted many things revolting to our religious feelings: with the extinction of which we too, like our continental neighbours, must pay the fine imposed on all who sacrifice their better interests to a jest or an epigram.

In point of national morality, it is not yet so easy to decide between the two kingdoms as many of our countrymen are inclined to imagine. If what the Italians term "*Il decoro*" be generally more discernible among the middling ranks of English society than among those of any other country, we strongly suspect that no European nation contains within itself the seeds of low depravity more deeply and more extensively scattered than they are in our manufacturing districts. For the justice of this remark, we refer our readers to the opinion of perhaps the first traveller of the age †, and to the detailed account of a manufacturer noticed in one of our late numbers ‡. The higher orders of Paris, those which constituted what is termed *La Société*, appear to have been by profession sayers of *bon mots* and epigrammatists. In possession of a more perfect taste than ourselves, living more in common, and acquainted too familiarly with each other, they courted every ridicule of the day; and a marriage or a death, a national success or disaster, a good or a bad man, were with them a loss or a gain, only as they presented or destroyed an occasion for their playful vein. A *bon mot* is undoubtedly of some advantage, in all great cities, to

* We have still been unable to procure the Paris edition of these six vols., and have seen only the London re-print, or rather *selection*, in three volumes.

† See the Classical Tour through Italy by Mr. Eustace.

‡ Rev. for November last, Owen's New View of Society.

him

him who utters it: but in Paris it was a fortune. From a society of which every member felt the *besoin de rire*, resulted an extreme caution in authors against offering any provocation for laughter. Correctness the most elaborate and minute, suspicion and distrust of ungoverned genius, and application to study all the mysteries and catch the real form of Taste, (that Being which in many countries is considered as fugitive and capricious,) were the necessary effects of a literary police whose *espionage* was thus unerring, and whose censures were so severe. As, however, no good can accrue to the works of man from any system without its concomitant evil, these authors, who wrote in fear, betray in many of their best productions the enfeebling passion that repressed their ardour. If the stage produced none of the monsters, it was equally a stranger to some of the beauties, of the English drama; and if the unities of time and place were theatrically observed, the probabilities were not unfrequently violated by the compression of scenes, and the hurry of developement. Yet, with these disadvantages, it must be allowed that the *société* of Paris, and the intimate connection between writers and their readers, and again of authors with each other, were on the whole favorable in a great degree to the cause of literature. Those who have ever compared the wits of the town and of the country must have perceived the decided superiority of the former to the latter. A recluse may be endowed with a quick apprehension, and may in silence and retirement have gone far towards storing his mind with images or with science: but the result of his solitary and uncontradicted musing will be contemptible, in comparison with the proficiency of him who has sharpened his wit on the whet-stone of other minds, and viewed the object of his researches with other eyes besides his own. A poet may be

——" *Cupidus sylvarum, aptusque bibendis*
Fontibus Aonidum;"

he may desire to ramble over hills, " to feel the gales that from them blow," to listen to the water-falls, and to rest beneath the moss-grown oaks; the objects may be delightful to his fancy, may warm his memory, and kindle his hope of returning to pass the remnant of his life " beneath the shade of melancholy boughs:" but he will be unable to express these rural inspirations in a strain that is worthy of their beauty, until he has acquired that nice taste which is the offspring only of large capitals, and of frequent competition. The present metrical writers of this island live dispersed, and at a distance from each other. Each of them, at the foot of his mountain or the border of his lake, muses on his own system, forms his own rules of

taste, and contrives and executes his own plot, without previous reference to the judgment of others who are engaged in the same pursuit. Favoured with considerable powers by nature, each strikes out, amid a crowd of error, the happy thought which elevates him to the rank of the *man of the day*. As, however, there is no community of bards, so is there no common taste, no common feeling, no common *English*. We have the style of Mr. B., and then the style of Mr. C., and then another of Mr. D. Were these writers friends, and inhabitants of the great city, mutually borrowing and reflecting light, we should hear less of style, which is ordinarily but the *Sauvagerie of oddity;* and we should find in its stead the English language, "one and indivisible," feelings less forced, less of the descriptive and diffuse, and more of the compressed and intellectual. The social temper of Parisian authors has made all Europe their readers and admirers.

We remarked, in our preceding Appendix, that this work was unequally supported, and that the concluding volumes were inferior in merit to those which preceded them. We might have added that they are of a graver character, less amusing, less *anecdotique;* and we are inclined to attribute this change to the advancing years of the author, his growing indifference to novelties, and the clouds that were gathering over the whole horizon of gaiety. Yet, if gravity be the character of the conclusion, it is still more that of the commencement of the work: while the intermediate parts are lively and playful. Indeed, besides the presumptive evidence of style and manner, we have the positive evidence of an *hiatus*, from the month of July 1771 to November of the same year, that Grimm was not the only author. A note to the correspondence of that period informs us, that he had gone to London to attend on a German prince; that his contributions were suspended until his return; and that the following articles were composed by a lady, who wrote under the direction of one of his friends. No literary intelligence intervenes between July and November: only a scanty supply is afforded for that month; and a note under December apprizes us that the Baron had returned to resume his functions of conductor. The work, therefore, is undoubtedly the production of associated writers. What was their number, what were their names, and in what ratio were their contributions, we are unable to ascertain. *Meister*, a countryman of Grimm, and a nameless female author, are said in an advertisement to be contributors; and to them many others were unquestionably added, whose different styles, tastes, and acquirements, were necessary to a work professing, and exulting in, miscellaneous riches. It will possibly be ascertained by future

future inquiries that, although the whole bears on it the name of GRIMM, the Baron rather kept than filled the portfolio.—At a time when a foreigner, and more especially a foreigner the acknowleged correspondent of his native prince, was respected in France, and indulged in liberties unknown to Frenchmen, we may easily imagine that French writers, who wished to say securely more than the police would permit, would anxiously seek some protected and licensed vehicle for the new and dangerous tenets of the day. The result of associated labourers will be that incongruity of style which we have remarked. It is probable that the Baron contributed chiefly to the first and to the latter, or, in other words, to the graver portions of the Correspondence. A foreigner, on arriving among a strange people, is usually too ignorant of their manners to begin by jesting, which supposes an intimacy almost approaching to birth-right; and he would naturally apply himself, like the writer at the commencement of this work, to the consideration of the new language and literature of his adopted nation. Besides, we apprehend, a certain idiom, manner, and style, belong to Gallic as to every other national wit, which defy imitation. The Baron never quite divested himself of his Teutonic accent; and we do not believe that his Teutonic gravity ever entirely deserted him.

Not only was this author assisted, but he was even preceded in his Journal, and by a writer of celebrity. The Abbé *Raynal*, it appears, first undertook to keep up a literary correspondence with some of the greatest European princes; and the Empress of Russia, the Kings of Sweden and of Poland, the Duchess of Saxe-Gotha, the Duke of Deux-Ponts, the hereditary Princess of Hesse-Darmstadt, and the Princess of Nassau-Laarbruck, were foremost in the royal muster-roll of his correspondents. It appears that GRIMM co-operated with *Raynal* for two years in the agreeable and flattering task of affording amusement to princes; and hence, in the year 1755, he was invested by the preceding editor of the work with the labour, responsibility, and honour of the whole. Whether he retained any former associates of *Raynal*, or whether he selected a new fraternity, we cannot decide: but, as this correspondence opens two years before GRIMM succeeded to the place of its first conductor, it is probable that the contents from 1753 to 1755 are composed of his contributions to the Abbé's Memoirs. At the epoch of the Baron's accession to the place of the Abbé, *Fontenelle*, the eternal *Fontenelle*, *Montesquieu*, *Buffon*, *Jean-Jaques Rousseau*, and *Voltaire*, were alive and publishing; and it is a proof of the sagacity of the present author or editor, that the criticisms

passed on their works stand unrevoked by the judgment of succeeding years.

An anonymous journal, conducted through the medium of a private correspondence, has the advantage of possessing a frankness which is the result of confidence; and the associated writers thought not of enlightening the public; and they were not cramped by considerations of friendship, nor by those of self-love, but expressed their opinion with a liberty proportionate to their security. Hence we perceive that total disregard to personal considerations and delicacies, which can never be found in works designed for the press. In a word, the Correspondence is the more interesting to the public because it was never intended to meet the public eye.

The first part contains, with much that is unimportant and unamusing, a handsome and valuable proportion of sterling materials. 'These sheets,' says the author, 'shall be consecrated to truth, to confidence, and to frankness; and, whatever may be our intimacy with many men of letters, of whom we may have occasion to speak, it shall have no influence over our judgment.' Conformably with these professions, he begins with a notice of a work by the Abbé *Raynal*, his predecessor; and the following sentence passed on the Abbé proves the writer to have been tolerably unbiassed by friendship:

'The world has justly reproached M. *Raynal* with a tiresome and perplexed style, the fury of antitheses, portraits formed by chance, and overlaid with contradictions; in a word, his manner is censured for its glitter, which has the less claim on our indulgence because it makes pretensions to please, and imposes on the reader by false ornaments.'

M. GRIMM appears to have bestowed great attention on the literature of England. Among our lighter works, he observes the Domestic Novel, a species of romance unknown to our rivals; and, after having noticed the better productions of Fielding, he makes these reflections:

'It seems at first sight surprizing that the French, who have given birth to so many good romances, are possessed of none which paint their domestic manners: but, on reflection, we shall discover that, if they have no pictures of this kind, it is not for want of artists, but for want of originals. When an author has painted our beaux and belles, he has nearly exhausted the pallette, and pourtrayed every national feature that it is possible to introduce into a French romance. Such are the works of the younger *Crebillon*, which might properly be styled the domestic romances of the nation. The romances written in the style of the Abbé *Prevôt* are of a different class; I should compare them to tragedy, which is nearly the same among all people, because the grand passions belong directly to human

man nature, and have in all countries the same secret springs of action; but comedy and domestic romances must necessarily be different among different people, because they belong to the manners and particular character of patrons, which have no resemblance with each other. It might, perhaps, be correctly said that the French have had no domestic romances, and no comedy since the time of *Moliere*, because they have no manners; and that they have no characteristic manners, because none but a free nation can have these distinctions. How many tribes of different characters were comprized in that little country called Greece? What can be more forcibly contrasted than an Athenian, a Spartan, a Theban, or a Macedonian? Yet all these people inhabited the same climate: but liberty, and their laws, of which it was the basis, not only distinguished them from one another, but brought into notice the character of each individual. They knew no constraint in society; men dared to be themselves, and strove not to be like *all the world*, as the law of decorum enjoins the nation that has enacted it. Hence, in a circle of fifteen persons, we are scarcely able to distinguish in three hours the fool from the man of sense. All the Parisian world speaks on the same subjects nearly in the same jargon: we have all a family-resemblance, that is to say, we resemble nothing; and hence we shall never possess domestic romances. The English, on the contrary, have secured to every individual, together with his liberty, the privilege of being such as nature formed him; imposing on him no necessity of concealing opinions, prejudices, or peculiarities attached to his profession; and hence their domestic romances are so agreeable, even to strangers who have never had it in their power to become acquainted with English manners: because, when the portrait is well represented, we feel its merit, its truth, and its resemblance, even though we have never met the original.'

This is sound reason; and in the same spirit are many ingenious remarks on the comparative excellence of the two dramatic schools. The unities, and that excessive punctiliousness which is remarkable in the French dramatic authors, not only began to fatigue the Teutonic critic, but were disgusting to DIDEROT himself, a native of the land which ranked them among the primary and essential qualities of theatrical pieces.—Baron GRIMM gives an amusing account of a dispute between Garrick and a Scotish officer, on the subject of Shakspeare. Indeed, the honors paid in this country to the bard of Avon, and to the performer who most felt and best pourtrayed his beauties, scarcely exceed those which are granted to them by the Baron. The school of *Racine* is adapted to Frenchmen, according to this reasoning; and Shakspeare (but certainly not his school) is adapted to ourselves. In attempting their regularity, we become formal: in aspiring at our freedom, they become turgid and extravagant. These sentiments are but the skirmishings which precede the grand and simultaneous, though

secret attack directed by the Baron and DIDEROT against the formalities of French tragedy. They laughed, indeed, only in their sleeve; because to have laughed aloud would have exposed them to all the insolence of common-place; they would have been pelted for their presumption; and nothing removes so effectually a propensity to laughter as the fear of being pelted. Among other objections to the French school, are the rhyme and the metre; which GRIMM charges with destroying all theatrical delusion. True tragedy, such (he asserts) as has never been written in France, must be composed in prose. The iambic of the Greeks and Romans, as it was the easiest of metres, admitted of every elevation and depression, and adapted itself, like our blank verse, to the most familiar or most empassioned scenes: but the French who are not possessed of this intermediate language should write in prose, and consider the tragedies of *Racine* and *Voltaire* rather as splendid poems than as pieces adapted to the stage. As poems, he thinks, they are intitled to high honor; as theatrical pieces, they are cold, childish, and insipid. — This is more than we expected from a German initiated in the mysteries of Gallic taste: but our astonishment was at its height on finding another strong though clandestine enemy to the formalities of the French stage in DIDEROT. He boldly asserts that tragedy remains to be invented in France; and that his countrymen have mistaken the pomp and stateliness of Madrid for the heroism of Rome; but still the wholesome fear of being pelted in the streets prevented these revolutionists of the theatre from openly attempting the changes which they considered as requisite to dramatic excellence.

The reader is here presented with an admirable plan for reforming the monasteries in Spain, which unhappily was too good for the times and for the country. The monks were too powerful for the minister, and had sufficient credit to procure his dismission. — The account, by *Condamine*, of the Convulsionaries, adds another important and disgusting fact to the annals of enthusiasm and superstition.

'The Convulsionaries have been crucifying themselves in Paris for these six months, and have substituted the *succour* of the cross for that of the billet and bar of iron. M. *Bertin*, lieutenant-general of the police, like a man of wit, instead of persecuting them, has sent them word that he gave them his permission to perform at the fair. M. *de la Condamine* had an opportunity of assisting on Good Friday at this strange ceremony: he even provided himself with a nail which was useful on the occasion; and he has written to me the following account of what he witnessed.

'"Yes, Sir, my eyes have seen what I desired to behold. Sister *Françoise*, aged 55, was nailed to a cross, in my presence, with four square

square nails, and remained attached to it during more than three hours. She has suffered much, particularly in her right hand. I saw her shudder and grind her teeth with pain when the nails were drawn out of her. Sister *Marie*, aged 22, her proselyte, could scarcely bring herself to suffer. She wept, and said frankly that she was afraid: at length, she determined on it, but was unable to endure the fourth nail, and it was not entirely driven in. In this state, she read an account of the passion with a loud voice: but her strength failed, she was on the point of fainting, and cried out, "Remove me quickly." She had been nailed to the cross for twenty or five-and-twenty minutes When the attendants took her from the room, she was attacked by the cholic, but recovered in a quarter of an hour. They fomented her feet and hands with the miraculous water of Saint Pâris, and this application was more agreeable to her than the strokes of the hammer. I will read to you as long as you like my *procès-verbal*, but I have determined not to give a copy of it to any person, not even to my sister or my wife. I have my reasons for this. Had I not imposed on myself this law, I would have communicated it to you with pleasure: but the preceding account will supply its place; and nothing remains to be told but a few little details."'

Ye Jumpers, ye Swedenborgians, and ye who court the grotesque and arabesque of religion, what say ye now? What have ye done, Carthusians, Dominicans, Augustins; what, ye Flagellators, Macerators, Extenuators, and Lacerators of human flesh; that can equal in sublimity of absurdity the flights of the Convulsionaries?

The second volume of the first division of this work is ushered in by "Conversations with M. *de la Barre*," whose real name was M. *de Vauville*, on the subject of these Convulsionaries; who, it seems, held their meetings at his house.

'"I went," continues in another part the narrator, "to call on Sister *Félicité*, to whom I read a letter from a physician. She smiled, spoke to me mildly, and said that at present she and her female companions did not receive *succours*, because God had changed their exterior into an interior state; that she would inform me when any thing was intended to be done; that their number was three; of whom one represented the church, another the synagogue, and the last the elect."'

M. *de la Barre*, whose name is evidently taken from one of the instruments of torture which he exercised on his three *energumènes*, exultingly compares the extacies and sufferings of the Convulsionaries to those of the primitive Christians. "If," says he, "the Apostles had the power of drinking poison without suffering from its effects, we have a sister who swallows cinders, tobacco, and excrements diluted in vinegar, and yet she voids milk."—"I know it," interrupts his sarcastic interlocutor, "and several phials of that milk are to be seen in the possession of M. *le Paige*, the advocate, one of those whom the

parliament has selected to examine the Encyclopædia. And does not the life of the primitive Christians bear a strong resemblance to that of the Convulsionaries? The obscurity and abject state of the first Christians are sufficiently proved by the silence of Pagan authors on the subject. For myself I feel enchanted when I come to witness the convulsions, and always imagine myself present at the assemblies of the primitive church." —

By these and similar compliments, the stranger extorts from M. *de la Barre* some account of the discipline of the three ladies, which we copy, without apprehension that any three English belles will adopt it *à la lettre*.

' " Ah, Sir, how very inferior are the gifts of *Françoise* to those which you will see among us! In the first place, *Françoise* speaks an unintelligible jargon; whereas Sister *Sion* holds discourses of admirable beauty and sublimity. I perform operations at which my nature shudders. Sometimes I make incisions in the tongue, in the form of a cross; at other times, by means of a tourniquet, I put sister *Marie en presse*: I myself invented that machine: the brothers were too much fatigued to press that sister, and did not press her with sufficient strength; at last, shocked to see that this *succour* was not administered as it should be, I bethought myself of making a tourniquet: I would shew it to you, but I have sent it to another lodging where I am going to take up my abode in a few days. Besides these *succours*, we have crucifixions. Occasionally, God ordains that we should crucify three at the same time. One is at the feet of the other. It is impossible not to be affected at the sight: it is a fine sight. Sometimes, God makes them little; they are like children; they crawl on their knees; they cast themselves on their beds; we give them play-things; we feed them with pap: some persons see all this with an air of contempt; and they condemn yet more strongly all that has the appearance of indecency: but these people have not read the Holy Scriptures." ' &c. &c. &c.

' I testified,' continues the narrator, ' to M. *de la Barre*, the most ardent and lively desire to witness *a work of piety*. He invited me to return in a few days, and told me that he would inform me when any thing was to take place, which would apparently be in a fortnight. I left him. He is advocate to the parliament of Rouen, and son of a registrar to the same parliament. He is, in height, about five feet, (French,) and three or four inches; thin, of a brown complexion, wears his own hair, has a pleasant look, and an engaging smile; indeed, his physiognomy possesses much sweetness, goodness, and sense; he appears to be from forty to forty-five years of age.'

On Palm Sunday, the narrator paid another visit to M. *de la Barre*; and, while they were engaged in conversation, two women entered the room, one dressed as a servant, the other as a lady. The latter seemed to be from thirty-five to forty years of age, and was no other than Sister *Sion*, who repre-

sented

sented the church. Every thing that she said was accompanied with that smile which is the refinement of mystical coquetry. After having detailed the gifts of the Convulsionaries, she ended with this relishing piece of information; "Think not that we are saints, for all that; convulsions are gifts of a gratuitory not of a sanctifying grace; and it has more than once happened that a Convulsionary has fallen into error, and shewn weaknesses which ought to humble us."—At length, on Good Friday, the narrator reaped the fruit of his two visits. He arrived at a quarter after two at the house of *M. de Vauville*, where he saw a numerous assembly. He then gives a list of the profane and of the initiated who were present at the meeting. Among the former we find the Princess de Kinski, the Prince de Monaco, the Comte de Stahremberg, &c. &c. The following terrible scene was presented to the assembly:

'Sister *Rachel* and Sister *Félicité* had been on the cross for a quarter of an hour. The cross of the former was extended flat on the floor: that of the latter was nearly upright, but sufficiently inclined to be supported against the wall. *Rachel*'s hands were nailed almost horizontally, and her arms were extended, but not wide enough to give her muscles too fatiguing a tension. She wore on her head a cap of blue silk, with white flowers, and a cushion which raised her hair. She is ugly, little, dark, and about thirty-three years old; blood flowed from her feet and hands; her head was inclined; her eyes were closed; and the paleness of death was painted on her visage. The spectators saw a cold sweat flow down which terrified them; M. *de Vauville* advanced, wiped frequently the face of *Rachel*, and told us for our satisfaction that she represented the agony of Jesus Christ. I went up to *Rachel*, and asked her why she closed her eyes; she answered in an infantine manner that she *was gone to by-by* *. This state of crisis lasted for a quarter of an hour; when, by little and little, the perspiration was dispersed, as well as the paleness. *Rachel* then opened her eyes, looked at us with a smiling air, lisped some childish words, and *thou'd* and *thee'd* (*tutoya*) the Princess de Kinski. She frequently addressed M. *Dubourg*, and told him that the faculty wished to explain these miracles, but understood nothing of the matter: but that God would again put her on her feet. M. *Dubourg* shewed her some sugar-plums, and told her that she should not have any of them because she scolded him. She answered that she would take them when her *pretty little hands* should be free. After all these contemptible extravagancies, it appeared that *Rachel* fainted away again, and became dumb and pale. *Sion* said with an anxious and disturbed air: "My dear father, it is time to take her down." M. *de Vauville* approached,

* "*Elle me répondit qu'elle faisoit dodo.*" *Faire dodo* is the infantine French for *dormir*; or, as our children and nurses say, to go to *by-by*.

with

with a pair of pincers in his hand, and drew the nails. At the drawing of each nail, *Rachel* suffered the severest pain; and the convulsive motions of her face, and particularly of her lips, made us shudder. The Princess de Kinski covered her eyes with her hands. A quantity of blood poured from *Rachel*'s wounds; her hands and feet were washed with water drawn from the cistern in the kitchen by Mademoiselle *Bibéron*; at last the blood appeared to be staunched; she wrapped each foot in linen, and put on her shoes and stockings. No linen was applied to her hands. She had remained suspended to the cross for an hour. Still the cross of Sister *Félicité* was extended on the floor at the bottom of *Rachel*'s cross; and, in spite of the warnings and precautions of Sister *Sion*, *Rachel*, as she walked away, brushed with her gown the fingers of Sister *Félicité*, who cried out. The face of the latter was ardent and inflamed, and her eyes sparkled: but she kept silence. She remained on the cross a quarter of an hour longer than her companion, gave the same signs of pain when the nails were taken out, and like her bled considerably. — Scarcely had *Rachel* descended from the cross, when she went towards M. *Dubourg*, crawling on her knees, and took from him him some sugar-plums; thence crawling towards Madame de Kinski, she rested her head on the knees of that Princess, and bestowed on her sundry infantine caresses. M. *de Vauville* told us that she was going to dine; that she had been during that morning on foot to Mount Valérien, and had returned without eating. It was three o'clock. At that hour, *Rachel* gave three wide yawns, which they told me was the conclusion of her convulsions. After having yawned, they put on her ordinary head-dress; and she ate some rice and oysters. I do not know whether she drank wine."

To these abominations the narrator adds what is termed in convulsionary language "the succour of *Marie*." This holy sister, it appears, was a stout two-handed wench, from thirty to thirty-five years of age, in excellent condition. M. *de Vauville* spred a mattrass on the ground in a corner of the room; when Sister *Marie* laid herself on it, first on her stomach and afterward on her back, and submitted to no common portion of bastinade. They administered to her on the chest and breast a number of strokes, with a billet of wood a foot and a half in length and five inches thick. "The blows," said M. *de Vauville*, "do not wound her bosom, a sign that the bosom of the church is always unhurt through every trial and reverse." — "I can assure you," said Sister *Sion*, "that she does not suffer, although she appears to suffer; no one can answer for it better than myself, for I frequently receive such blows, and never feel any pain from them." Then follows an account of some *light and trifling succours*, such as walking on her hands and arms; and a decent dose of knocks on the skull with a billet of nine inches long and two and a half in thickness, accompanied by another precious discourse from M. *de Vauville*. At last, from billets M. *de V.* proceeded to salute her with blows of the fist on both her

her cheeks; and while it was raining and snowing blows, boxes, cuffs, and bastinades on poor Sister *Marie*, seated on her mattrass, the assembly was astonished at hearing on a sudden the words "*by order of his Majesty*," and yet more by the entrance of a commissary of police with his myrmidons. The party was instantly in the utmost confusion; Sisters *Félicité*, *Rachel*, and *Sion* wept, tore their hair, and shewed every symptom of extreme fear and despair. Sister *Marie* alone was tranquilly seated on her mattrass; and M. *de Vauville*, calm amid the general confusion, continued to regale her with some round boxes on the ear, which he accompanied by a repetition of the *Miserere*. The principal actors were then hurried off to the Bastille, and the visitors returned to their homes.

Those who would wish to pursue this terribly absurd account are referred to that part of the Correspondence which relates the events at Paris, which ought surely to be styled illiterate rather than literary, for the year 1761. Succours of the sword and fire are administered; and the frightful picture of criminal and horrid superstition, which we have ventured to lay before our readers, will be found a mere etching compared with that which follows. "Those," concludes *Condamine*, "are mistaken, who think that all this is the work of God, and say in evidence of the miracle, that these women did not suffer, but felt pleasure in their torments: this, indeed, would have been a miracle: but, as I have seen them testify every mark of agony, the only miracle to which I can bear witness is that of the constancy and courage which fanaticism is able to inspire." To this remark, we must add that women were the only victims of this blind fury for self-torture.

M. *le Paige*, advocate to the parliament, inflicted a number of strokes with a billet on his wife, two or three days before her *accouchement*, and she died a week after that event. Father *Cottu* said, "She was happily delivered; the blows did her no harm; she only died eight days afterward."

M. *de Grandelas*, a physician, was at the bed-side of Sister *Françoise* at the moment of her death. "God be praised," she cried; "all is over; here at last is the grand convulsion." Father *Cottu*, who was at the other side of her bed, persuaded that she would recover her health and be radically cured on a sudden, as she had often been before, if some kind friend would only apply some strokes with a billet, ran to fetch that weapon, and was preparing to ease the dying woman, when the physician stopped him, and said, "Eh, Sir, what are you going to do?"—"To console and to cure her."—"How, to cure her?"—"Yes, Sir, by a remedy that has often succeeded."—"We really are unacquainted among the faculty with

with any such remedy, and she shall have none of it, with your leave."—"She shall have none of it, if you are so determined: but consider well, Sir, what you are about; you are the author of her death, and you will answer for it before God."—She expired a quarter of an hour afterward, and Father *Cottu* was convinced that she died for want of a few knocks with a billet of wood.

Readers who are fond of contrast, and have no objection to strong light and shade, will turn with complacency from the above narrative to the amusement selected by *Voltaire* for the ladies who visited *Délices*. This patriarch had made the acquisition of a certain Danish Cyllarus, extremely advanced in years; and, reversing the maxim contained in the third Georgic, which says,

"*Hunc quoque, ubi aut morbo gravis, aut jam segnior annis*
Deficit, abde domo," &c.

and that

"*Frigidus in Venerem senior, frustraque laborem*
Ingratum trahit," &c.

forgetting, we say, or not wishing to remember these wholesome axioms, the patriarch took a singular delight in leading out his female visitors, and forcibly compelling them to witness what he called *le grand spectacle*.

The liberality of *Voltaire* is extraordinary. When he settled at Ferney, his annual income exceeded one hundred thousand livres, and he had lodged in a single commercial house at Lyons a capital of eight hundred thousand livres. In a very short time these funds were exhausted; and the Duke of Wurtemberg, instead of remitting to him the thirty thousand livres which he stipulated annually to send, had acquired a certain foolish habit of forwarding to him an account of his fêtes, and their concomitant expences. The patriarch, however, rose superior to the effects of his liberalities and imprudences; his letters supported their usual and characteristic fund of gaiety; and his genius set all to rights again. Mankind have full cause to regret the appearance of this extraordinary man: but, in lamenting the dangerous arms of wit and ridicule with which he waged war on many of our nearest and dearest feelings, we certainly cannot but acknowlege that the persecutions directed against religious opinion, and the crying injustice of legal sentences common in France, called for an avenger and an exposer of their misdoings. Not to mention the violent possession of *Favart*'s wife by the Maréchal *de Saxe*, countenanced and supported by the high authorities, the death of the unfortunate

tunate *Calas* was alone sufficient to stir even indifference itself into mutiny. Every criminal code, adopted by a people who wish to be exempted from the imputation of barbarism, should be founded on the maxim that, in the uncertainty of proofs, it were better to suffer twenty guilty men to escape the rigour of the law, than to expose a single innocent man to become its victim: — but, when we behold a man and a father, in the decrepitude of age, torn from the bosom of his family, in which he had lived honoured and in tranquillity, and among whom he had promised himself to die in peace, accused of a crime at which nature shudders, and sent to the scaffold by hear-says and whispers, who does not tremble at the idea of the fate which obscure futurity may reserve for himself? To the eternal execration deserved by the Judges of Toulouse, may be added the detestation of those base Judges who permitted the character of the honest *Bordeu* to be whispered away, his life to be endangered, and his finances ruined, and who inflicted no punishment on the vile author of his misfortunes. On the ninth day of March 1763, a decree was passed to wipe off the stain from the memory of the unhappy *Calas*. At the same time, "it was resolved to petition the King to prohibit, by an express declaration, the procession which took place every year at Toulouse in odium of the Calvinists, which kept alive that barbarous hatred, so contrary to the principles of religion and Christian charity" 'This decree,' continues M. GRIMM, 'was passed on the same day and at the same hour on which *Calas* died in tortures three years before. Nothing afflicts me so much as this solemn puerility in a cause of this nature; it inspires me with a horror beyond expression; it seems as if I saw children playing with the poignards and instruments of the executioner.'

To the credit of M. *de Voltaire*, he suffered none of these flagitious sentences to escape his indignation, and lost no opportunity of heaping infamy on the heads of their authors. 'A most affecting letter from M. *de Voltaire* has been published, from which it appears that another Protestant family of Languedoc experienced almost at the same time a similar injustice from the parliament of Toulouse. Oh! fatal impunity! This family, whose name is *Sirven*, has also fled for protection to M. *de Voltaire*.'

That these instances of flagitious intolerance, frequently recurring, aided the birth of what is termed *French philosophy*, we are fully persuaded. Religion is so consolatory to man, and it is so necessary to him in all the cross accidents of his life, that nothing less than extreme profligacy, attired in its mask and stole, could possibly have uprooted it from the hearts of the many.

many. A few may doubt: but the mass of mankind, including in it those whose hearts and heads are the soundest, will ever be the champions of Religion. If *Voltaire*, *Helvetius*, *Rousseau*, &c. overthrew the altars and the throne of France, the altars and the throne gave birth to their enemies, called forth their venom, and held up to them the marks at which they leisurely took aim. We blame *Voltaire*, and we would gladly see all his levities against religion obliterated for ever: but the parliaments, — the Sorbonne, — the Tartuffes who conjured up from ages of darkness the racks, gibbets, and faggots of old, and strove to subject to their tenets an enlightened age, — deserved the retaliation which personally visited them. Unhappily, the victors knew not where to stop; and artful men, who ever wait events to profit by them, converted the bright promise into a desolation yet more awful than that which the first reformers attempted to avoid.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. IX. *Répertoire Bibliographique Universel*, &c.; *i. e.* An Universal Bibliographical Repertory. By G. PEIGNOT. 8vo. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 18s.

IN consequence of the suppression of the monasteries in France, many large collections of books became a sort of public property, which the administrative bodies deposited in the great cities of the empire, and placed under the superintendance of librarians. The importance of bibliographical erudition, to these official keepers of hoarded learning, occasioned the compilation of several elementary works on bibliology, adapted to teach their duties and to assist them in their task; and the Repertory before us is one of this description. It proposes to connect and chronicle the various special bibliographies in being, to provide a dictionary of critical catalogues, and, by directing the attention of students to the most complete lists of books in each separate department of attention, to facilitate a survey of the entire literature of the world.

The earliest remaining writer, who has left instructions for the use of librarians, is *Richard Angerville* of Bury, who became, in the reign of Edward the Third, Bishop of Durham, and died in 1345. His *Philobiblion* was first printed at Speyer, in 1483: which edition escaped the notice of *Maittaire*, though not of *Orlandi*. A second impression, from a better manuscript, and (as the editor says) from an autograph, was executed at Paris in 1500. A third edition was made at Oxford in 1599. — Another early writer on this science is a Scotchman,

known in the theological world by the name of *Durœus* for his efforts to unite the Lutheran and Calvinistic churches. His *Bibliothecarius* was printed at London in 1651. Neither of these authors is noticed in the work before us.

M. PEIGNOT's plan is to collect as many special bibliographies in different languages as his means of inspection permit; to class these works in the alphabetical order of their topics; and then to make an index of the whole list, accompanying the entire title of each work with such notices, or anecdotes, or criticisms, as the case may invite. He proposes to separate the productions which regard universal bibliography into four grand divisions, or main classes. I. Literary History. II. Bibliology. III. General Bibliography. IV. Special Bibliography. We do not perspicuously see the advantage of this arrangement: but we observe that the author, in explaining what he means by bibliology, treats of the method of classing books under specific categories. It is sometimes difficult for a librarian to know under what head to insert a given work; the limits of contiguous departments of investigation are frequently indefinite; and writers themselves are often desultory.

A strange and apparently capricious list of topics serves to throw into divisions the author's catalogue of catalogues. Under the letter A, for instance, his heads are *Abeilles, Académies, Accouchemens, Agriculture, Alcoran, Alimens, Amérique, Ana, Anatomie, Anonymes, Antiquités, Arabe, Architecture, Arithmétique, Astronomie.* To each of these words is attached a list of books treating on the subject, and especially of those which respect its literary history. The most interesting, as we might suppose, is the article *Bibliothèque:* which is rich in enumerations of catalogues, and contains anecdotes about the prices of rare books which may amuse the curiosity, and stimulate the imitation, of our biblio-maniacs. Dr. Adam Clarke's Bibliographical Dictionary incurs unmerited depreciation. — The profusion of writers in all lines of literature may be inferred from this circumstance, that, under the head *Cométographie*, mention is made of a manuscript-catalogue which particularizes eighteen hundred writers on the single and unusual subject of Comets.

High praise is given to a literary history in seven volumes by the Abbé *Andres*, intitled *Dell' Origine, Progressi, e Stato attuale d' ogni Letteratura:* Parma, 1782. This work has been translated into Spanish, but not into French; a desideratum which the present author warmly recommends to be supplied.

M. PEIGNOT strongly eulogizes also *Brunet*'s work, *Manuel du Libraire, et de l'Amateur des Livres;* which he considers as the classical

classical pocket-book of every alert and accomplished book-fancier.

The article *Imprimérie* has considerable merit: but the head *Manuscrits*, on the contrary, is meagre and disappointing in no ordinary degree. This topic is elegantly treated in *Delandine's* account of the Lyons library *, and occupied a long chapter in *Schelhorn's Instructions for Librarians and Archivists:* but it ought especially to have afforded some reference to the Jesuit *Labbe's* attempt at an universal Catalogue of Manuscripts, published at Paris in 1653—1657: *Specimen novæ Bibliothecæ MSS.* The earliest extant printed catalogue of manuscripts in a private library is dated Augsburg, 1575. A very singular catalogue is noticed at p. 405.: *Bibliotheca Mariana, quâ Auctores, qui de Maria deip. Virg. scripsére, continentur.* Romæ, 1648. 2 vols. 8vo.

To a person who is desirous of forming a library of catalogues *only*, this work would be a valuable directory. Indeed, it seems to have been the result of an eclectic passion for catalogues really indulged by the author. In our judgment, a list of his documents, arranged in chronological order, would have been more convenient than such a list in technical order; and the running head-title of each page should indicate the contents of that page, not perpetually repeat the title of the book. To complete the enumeration of appropriate writers, and the literary history of a given department of science, an author is often obliged to explore first the catalogues of the fifteenth century, and then those of the sixteenth, for the purpose of ascertaining what are the principal books to be consulted. If the catalogues of the seventeenth century were digested into annals of publication, the progress of research and of opinion would be rendered more intelligible. We feel, however, grateful for what has been performed, and doubt not that the work will attain another and an augmented edition.

ART. X. *De Paris*, &c.; *i. e.* Of Paris, its Manners, Literature, and Philosophy. By J. B. S. SALGUES. 8vo. Paris. 1813. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s.

AN Athenian was vaunting to Isocrates the delights of their native city, and describing it as equally the abode of pleasure and of intellect. "*Melior meretrix quam uxor*" was the reply of the judicious sage. — Perhaps, if the new King of France has acquired during his wanderings the matured criticism of Isocrates, he will judge thus of Paris, and transfer

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* See Art. II. of this Appendix.

to Bordeaux the permanent dwelling of the royal family. Paris is fitter for a visit than a residence; it may deserve to be the occasional *mistress*, but not the *wedded consort* of the sovereign. In all countries, the public opinion of the capital greatly influences the conduct of the government, and of the ruling classes. Now the public opinion of Paris is necessarily less pure and sound respecting morals, and respecting property, than the public opinion of a commercial town.

The commercial classes can afford to marry early, and they do this: they find their credit strengthened by matrimonial alliances, and seldom pass above ten years of adult life in celibacy. Hence, they countenance every where the natural morals of married families, and are enemies of adultery, banishers of indecency, patrons of refinement. Land-owners, on the contrary, often pass twenty years of adult life in celibacy; because an estate cannot support two establishments at once, and the father and the son must compromise their rivality by adopting Aristotle's seven-and-thirty for the age of matrimony. In most families, consequently, which depend on the rent of estates, we may find a more considerable tendency, than among merchants, to tolerate and act on the morality which accommodates the single man; and his is a more libertine creed than that of the husband. The military, and the literary classes, are yet more loose in their doctrine than the nobleman or landed proprietor. They never intend to marry: because to dress and to eat comprize all which their earnings will supply; and hence that unrestrained epicurism, which Castiglione calls "the morality of a cardinal," frequently attaches to these two professions. Now as Paris habitually assembles the noble, the military, and the literary, their libertine philosophy must predominate in that metropolis.

A much greater respect for property, moreover, always adheres to the commercial than to the other classes. Accustomed to make and to receive deposits, to watch over them with fidelity, to restore them with punctuality, and to pursue the Proteus-forms of capital through endless changes, tradesmen acquire at last even an interested love of justice; being ultimately convinced that every other way is a road to ruin. A mercantile public does not deliberate about confiscating tythes, but on the mode of rendering them objects of speculation in the money-market: not about the arbitrary seizure of specie, but the means of rendering the *louis-d'or* as versatile in its value as ingots, in order to profit by contracting for a supply.

In short, the perverse misgovernment of France, during the Revolution, has chiefly resulted from the unwholesome

local atmosphere of Parisian inclination; and this can only be avoided by a courageous removal of the metropolis. Commerce on a grand scale cannot be brought to Paris, because it does not stand on a river that is navigable for shipping. In Greece, as we have elsewhere observed, Athens was the school, and Corinth the market, for talents; and certainly it is fortunate for a man of intellect, when his scene of action is remote from his place of education. There are crudities of opinion, which youth may be allowed to profess, and which can conveniently be discarded only among new acquaintance; and there are experiments in conduct, which youth may be allowed to try, but which a permanent public might hold in derogatory remembrance. Let Paris remain the Athens, but let Bordeaux become the Corinth, of France.

The work before us is a sort of *Spectator*, containing detached essays on various matters connected with the general subjects indicated in the title-page. It opens with a paper comparing Paris with Athens; in which the author points out, with lively satire, many illaudable resemblances. The deficient application of machinery to the common purposes of life is remarked as a characteristic defect: the gardener draws his water in a pail, because he cannot afford the cost of a pump: — raise the wages of labour, and every body will be intent on introducing machines.

We are next introduced to '*The Age of Illumination*;' and here the writer contrasts with this proud claim the still subsisting manufactory of superstitious books; such as guides to the lottery, astrological almanacks, expositions of dreams, and mystical predictions.

In the following paper, it is related that Theophanes, an accomplished young man, had tried to maintain himself in the higher walks of literature, but in vain: it then occurred to him that he had been praised as a fine dancer; he applied at the opera, was received, and distinguished, and now lives in elegance. We suppose the story to be true; it is here told as if to satirize those who reward dancing above authorship: but perhaps this Theophanes had really mistaken his line, and was an inferior author and a superior dancer.

In No. 4., *On Conjugal Life*, a banker marries an extravagant woman, and repents. The fault consisted not in the marriage, but in taking an endowed woman without ascertaining her taste in expenditure.

Nos. 5—7. *Address to a frugal Mother of a Family*, who assists in educating the children. — *Vanity of Artists.* — *On the spelling of Sign-boards.* Certainly that ignorance is more common in Paris, than in London, which mis-spells the inscriptions

tions over shop-doors. Though our inferior tradesmen may often be ignorant, the painters who are employed on these occasions take care not to commit blunders. Some humorous instances are given of Parisian illiterateness, such as '*Buro du juje de pet*,' for *office of the justice of peace*. Read, *bureau du juge de paix*.

Dialogue between Aristotle and a Modern Critic.—The Museum, and the Statues. Here the author properly blames an arrangement which obliges those ladies, who visit the museum of paintings, to pass through the Hall of Antiques, which is occupied by naked statues. He observes that those, who go to see the latter, intend to incur the contemplation of the undraped human figure: but the picture-gallery might be made into a genteel lounge for modest women.—The next paper, on *Live Nudities*, reprobates the present modish transparency of feminine drapery. The writer's commendable delicacy on these points is rather new to us in a Parisian.

No. 11. *On Puffs*, in which the wall-bills and advertisements of the Parisians are here gaily described, is followed by another defence of celibacy, on the ground of the expensiveness of women; in which the irony may be useful to the sex.

On the Relative Height of the Principal Mountains.—A Russian Tale: this is a satire on the enemies of luxury, and especially *Rousseau.—The Encyclopædia of Beauty:* such is the title of a pleasing collection of anecdotes respecting fashionable customs.—Nos. 16. and 17. are continuations of No. 10. on Female Dress, and recommend, for medical reasons, more covering.

A lively dialogue on *Sugar and Coffee* occurs in two papers between a physician and a milliner, who is alarmed at the rise in the cost of the daily provision for breakfast, and consults the physician for a wholesome and frugal substitute. The result is that bread, fruit, a glass of wine, or even a good *cutlet*, are made to supply the place of colonial produce, which is medicinally anathematized.

In an essay on the *Miseries of Human Life*, Mr. Beresford's book is discussed, and a French translation by M. *Bertin* is commended.—*The Lady's Almanack criticized.—The Quidnuncs.—Taste:* a dialogue between a comedian and a tragedian. Comedy is here stated to pay best.—*Beggars.—Printing.—Hermotimus:* the story of a conceited young man, whom his old school-master represses and reforms.—*On Impertinence:* a sort of presumption is here satirized, which is more common among young men in France than in England.—*Forty.* This paper notices the declension of genius so common at Paris about the age of forty: hinting that young writers of no solidity are kept afloat while they visit in genteel feminine

societies, and are supposed to be within reach of marrying a fortune, but who are dropt with bitter contempt, as soon as it is ascertained that they cannot keep a table either with their pen or without it. — *On Operas, Musicians, and Poets.* — No. 30., *On Streets*, assembles diverting instances of the revolutionary mania for giving new names. Persons called *Leroi*, or *Leduc*, had their surnames changed to *Dix-aout*, or *La Montagne*: — *Saint-Jean*, or *Saint Paul*, gave place to *Brutus* and *Publicola*: — Pears termed *bon-chretien* were denominated *poires de bon republicain*; — and Madame *de Saint-Janvier* was obliged to accept the title of Madame *Nivose*. These things are passed; *Citayens* are supplying a select class of *Messieurs*; the *Rue de la Loi* is once more *Rue Richelieu*; and the Palace *Egalité* is again the *Palais-royal*.

Knowlege and Fortune. A young man brought up to the trade of a pastry-cook deserts his mince-pies for mincing poetry, and loses his maintenance without acquiring reputation. — *Dialogue between an old Man and a Representative of the People*: a satire on all innovation. — *Letter to a Journalist*; having for its object to banter the rusticities of remote districts by offering communications from them. — *Almanack of the Protestants.* It appears from this publication that old France possesses seventy-eight consistorial reformed churches, and seven chapels of ease, which employ one hundred and seventy pastors. Most of these clergy also officiate in some neighbouring village, where the meeting for worship is held in the open air, or in a private house. — *On Theatres.* We learn from the dramatic almanack, that France counts one hundred and twenty-nine cities in which licensed theatres have been erected. At Paris, fourteen hundred persons are attached to the various theatres; and about a thousand stock-plays, operas, melo-dramas, farces, &c. exist. Of the deceased authors who have contributed to form this repository, twenty-one are tragic and thirty-nine are comic poets.

In No. 36. *The old and the young Authors* are accused of an increasing reciprocal jealousy and of a filial impiety which aim at pulling down established reputations in literature. The groves of Parnassus are said to be too full; and unless a fall of timber takes place, the underwood will be stifled. — The system of *Descartes* respecting the *Mechanism of Animals* is next examined; and a work of M. *Grand-champ* against *Cruelty to Animals* is applauded.

On Men of Letters. — The inundation of mediocrity is here a subject of complaint: the French have not so much stowage for insignificance as we have. Let them, instead of almanacks of literature and annual anthologies, open quarterly, monthly,

and even weekly Reviews, Magazines, and Repositories: let every sect, and every science, advertize its separate periodical publication; and let them recollect that, if a genteel Parisian cannot tolerate the worship of Echo, yet the repetition of what has been said before is at once the easiest, and to the numerous classes of the people the most useful, of literary labours.—The next paper treats *Of little and great Literature.* Our phrase is "of the lower and higher walks of literature;" or rather, for M. SALGUES takes *extent* as well as *rank* of topic into consideration, "of minor and major composition." The suppression of monasteries is noticed as a powerful cause of the declension of erudition; and an enumeration of the more distinguished ecclesiastical contributors to public instruction terminates the disquisition.

No. 40. relates to *Impiety.* Mad. *Genlis*, and other *heresy-ferrets*, are here censured for a spiteful intolerance.—*On Earthquakes and Conductors.*—*On Celebrity.* That lasting popularity is seldom sudden, that sudden popularity is seldom lasting, forms a common-place maxim, adapted to humiliate vain glory and to console disappointment.

On the Art of Letter-writing.—*The Imaginary Mad-house*, three papers, containing personal satire.—*On Small Towns*; a continuation of No. 33.—*Le Rocher de Cancale.* This is the sign of an eating-house on the Boulevards, famous for its breakfasts *à la fourchette*, and for its oysters.—*The Jay.* A plagiary-author is here stripped of his borrowed feathers.—*A Stage-coach Scene*, not fortunate enough to indicate the lively painter of manners.—*On Modern Education.* The excessive care about dancing, and other showy accomplishments, to the neglect of house-wifery and the duty of a school-mistress, is justly satirized.

No. 53. *Petitions.* The French government invites applications in writing for all sorts of places; and this practice occasions an excess of petitioning which is here exposed.—In a paper on a *Parisian Sunday*, the pastimes of the inferior classes are painted from local nature.—*The Academy of Golconda.*—*Tolerance and Charity.* This attempt at discrimination deserves to figure in a vocabulary of synonyms.—*The Savage State.* Doig's idea is here defended.—*Lives of Saints.* The new edition of the *Lives of the Saints*, in which the fabulous miracles are omitted, and the more instructive biographies are reduced to credible legends, is highly praised, as denoting a reform from within of the Romish church. *Villenave* is the name of the meritorious author; his *Journal des Curés* deserves the notice of our ecclesiastical writers.

In a paper on *Tea*, we perceive that the author fancies tea to be unwholesome: a question which we believe has never been decided. — On a different subject, that of *Wigs*, some erudition and some pleasantry are displayed: but not much of either. — *On Coquetry.* — *On Literary Property.* — *On Science.* The popular cultivation of the sciences is lamented, as teaching a tasteless jargon, and bestowing only short-lived and useless reputations.

On Caustic Criticism. — *Dialogue of Æsculapius, Momus, and Minerva.* Philosophy, represented by Minerva, is here described as deranged; when Æsculapius attends as physician, and recounts the case to Momus. The follies of the Revolution are satirized with sprightly good humour. — In No. 66. the police of Paris is praised: but surely it is too mistrustful for liberty or comfort. — *The Mathematics.* This pursuit is censured. — Substance of a *Lecture on the Figure of Animals*, which the Professor considered as a result of circumstances. — *The Deliberative Assembly.* — *The Teacher of Philosophy:* an attack on atheism. — *Another Word about the Fashion.* — *The Hospitals.* We ought to translate some one chapter to give an idea of the author's manner, and we will select this, which is less trifling than many others:

'Let us turn aside our eyes from the frivolous objects which have occupied them; let us quit for a moment the noisier pleasures of the capital,

"The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,"

and let us carry our regards towards a picture worthy of interesting humanity.

'A physician, as much distinguished for the extent of his knowlege as for the services which he is daily rendering to misfortune and misery, in his official situation of administrator of the hospitals, M. *Duchannoy*, published not many years ago some Considerations on the comparative State of the Hospitals before the Revolution and at present. This work, if not attractive to cold, egotistical, insensible people, cannot but command the sympathy of all well-disposed persons. The philanthropist will there trace with real pleasure a number of useful ameliorations, which have been successively introduced into the asylums of poverty, where so many thousand individuals daily carry their miseries and infirmities. The laws of humanity have long been claiming these improvements; and we may really be astonished at the careless sloth of former administrations.

'Could the *Hôtel-Dieu*, in the state in which we remember it, be compared with any thing else than a common sewer, loaded with the infectious miasmata of a thousand different contagions: where the sick, heaped on one another, served only to conceal the distinction between the dying and the dead, and seemed to meet but in order to secure the absorption of some sufficient cause of dissolution? The means of cure were often the object of a horrid speculation, favourable only

only to low cupidity and insatiable avarice. It was reserved for an administration more humane, more principled, and more informed, to direct its benevolent attention to the condition of the indigent, and thus to found the purest pillar of national glory. Indeed, the present management of the hospitals deserves every praise for zeal, for prudence, for economy, for industry, for humanity of means, and for utility of purpose.

'Before the Revolution, Paris could boast of only three hospitals, the *Hôtel-Dieu*, the *Charité*, and the *Saint-Louis*: but now four additional buildings have been founded in the suburbs; with some special hospitals, (these three are for diseases in general,) such as the hospital for *maladies honteuses*, for cutaneous disorders, for diseases of children, and for lying-in women. At *Bicêtre* and at *Salpêtrière* are also lunatic asylums, which are improved but not new establishments.

'First it was necessary to repair the large edifices applied to these purposes, to order additional and well-adapted constructions, and to procure the furniture fixed and moveable, the baths and beds, the utensils of the apothecary and of the kitchen. This was done judiciously.—At the *Hôtel-Dieu*, the sick were mingled and confounded; all sorts of diseases, the most contagious and the most offensive, were huddled together; children and men, boys and girls, persons afflicted with hideous infirmities, the feverish, the scrophulous, the epileptic, the insane, were stowed in the same rooms with lying-in women, and venereal patients, three, four, sometimes six in a bed. It was Milton's lazar-house, with aggravations. The imagination shudders over the mere picture of these death-breathing apartments, where the sufferer was invited but to a sepulchre; yet they had continued thus for centuries. Now, thanks to a beneficent philosophy, the sick are insulated; each has his bed apart; and the beds are so constructed that the old abuse cannot be repeated. The number of beds is proportioned to the size of the apartments; which are lighted by larger windows, ventilated with thorough drafts, neatly white-washed, and purified with chemical vapours. This is a short sketch of what has been done for the indigent sick. It was difficult to carry farther the ameliorations of every kind.

'Let us not forget the excellent establishment of a central Dispensary; nor the House of Health in the suburb, where persons, able to pay for attendance, are admitted at a moderate price, and provided with those complex accommodations which cannot always be obtained at home. Let us add the School for Midwives, and the two Hospitals for Age; that of the men in Saint Lawrence, and that of the women in Saint Sêvres. Let us add also the Refuge for Old Couples, where a man and his wife, who have fallen into indigence, can live together on public alms: formerly, indigence was a sentence of divorce, which drove the husband to the *Bicêtre*, and the wife to the *Salpêtrière*; — and the House of Succour, a new institution, in which (as in a monastery) elderly men are admitted, on providing security for the payment of 200 livres yearly; — and the two Orphan-houses, one for children of each sex, and the Foundling Hospital for those whom parental unkindness reduces to the state of orphans. Here children are received without investigation, in order to prevent the

temptations to infanticide which shame has been known to occasion, as well as want. The administration continues to watch over these little unfortunates, and allows pensions for their board until the age of twelve; after which, masters will take them for their own earnings.

'It has not been reckoned sufficient to organize in a new and better spirit the antient institutions, and to found such others as were wanting; it has also been deemed fit to connect them under the superintendance of a common authority, which can prescribe to each the expedient limits of its division of humane labor. For this purpose, a central committee of the public charities has been formed; together with especial committees for managing the establishments for the sick, for the old, and for children.

'Besides the *bureaux* of these four committees, each establishment keeps accessible account-books with great exactness; so that the central administration can readily and weekly ascertain any thing that it wants to know concerning the state of the several institutions. A certain attention in comparing the number of inmates with the habitual outgoings is the best preventative of embezzlement.

'From this short account, it appears not only that the management of the old hospitals has been greatly improved, but that many entirely new establishments of beneficence have been created since the Revolution; yet such has been the economy resulting from vigilance and order, that, in comparing the former disbursements with the new, the last are found to be less considerable. When facts speak so loud, it is needless to subjoin reflections.'

No. 73. *The Cottage.* This beautiful and affecting paper describes the real retreat of a venerable member of the Convention, whose virtues and sufferings deserved a better lot at the hands of his countrymen.

On Humility. The author has heard of such a virtue in the provinces: but, like the girl of Petronius, a Parisian does not recollect ever to have had the honour of her company. — *On the Advantages of Paris.* — *The Taffety-coat.* — The next paper recounts a curious experiment made in the lunatic hospital at Charenton, to induce the patients to act plays for their amusement. Their friends were invited to the exhibitions, and an excellent effect was produced; so that a lunatic *Théatre de Charenton* is now established.

The Quarrel at a Theatre. — *The learned Young Ladies.* — *Contradictions of Geographers.* We are here introduced to a club of authors, who breakfast together at the *Rocher de Cancale*, and puff each other's productions with profitable efficacy.

This work much resembles, in form and purpose, *The Spectator*, *The World*, and similar English periodical essayists. If it has not all the quickness of perception and refinement of sagacity which formerly distinguished the Parisian writer, it surpasses the compositions of an anterior period in the moral, the principled, the prudent, and the rational, taste in conduct, which

which it aims at inculcating. Pictures of Paris have too often been adapted for the toilette of dissipation, and the *boudoir* of sensuality: this may be placed on the work-table of respectability.

The Continent will now be again pouring on us the literary accumulation of years; and translation is once more a career of pressing utility. Under some such title as *The Importer*, select essays from this and other similar publications in foreign languages might be brought together, in a form adapted to amuse the ladies of London, and to connect, by the sympathies of common studies, the heroines of European fashion.

ART. XI. *Histoire des Arts en France*, &c.; *i. e.* The History of the Arts in France, as exemplified in Monuments; followed by a Chronological Description of Statues in Marble and in Bronze, of Bas-reliefs, and of the Tombs of celebrated Men and Women, collected in the Imperial Museum of French Monuments. By ALEXANDER LENOIR, Administrator of this Museum, Conservator of the Objects of the Arts at Malmaison, Member of the Celtic Academy in France, &c. &c. 4to. pp. 480., and folio Volume of Plates. Paris. 1811. Imported by De Boffe. Price 5l. 5s. Boards.

IN the tremendous storm of the French Revolution, many monuments of art perished; and had not the National Assembly wisely appointed *a Commission of Monuments* to rescue from destruction those that remained, the Vandalism which then displayed itself would have been still more pernicious in its effects. Of this commission, M. LENOIR was appointed a member, Oct. 12. 1790; and not only the French public, but well-informed Englishmen, know with what ardor, perseverance, and success, he executed the task imposed on him*. More than five hundred monuments of the French monarchy were collected by him in the convent of the *Petits-Augustins*; and, having been first restored and classified, they were elegantly disposed in the Museum of which he deservedly has the care. Artists have been often employed in taking sketches of the curious objects in M. LENOIR's collection; and the folio volume of plates annexed to the work before us will afford a complete idea of the various treasures which it contains. Not satisfied, however, with arranging and giving representations of the antiquities in this Museum, the author has endeavoured to

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* For an account of M. LENOIR's former work on this subject, (which is partly incorporated with the present,) translated by Mr. Griffiths, see M. R., Vol. xli., N. S., p. 512.

convert

convert them to useful purposes, by making them illustrative of history, and by unfolding the state of the arts at the time of their respective execution. The Museum having been his hobby-horse, he has devoted himself incessantly to every branch of study by which he could throw light on the curious objects which he has amassed; and we may regard the present volume as the result of his researches. His plan cannot be more clearly explained than by himself:

'My purpose in this work is to give, 1st, A complete History of the Arts in France,—and, 2dly, To present an Historical and Chronological Description of the Statues, Bas-reliefs, and Tombs of those Persons, Male and Female, who have rendered France illustrious. The History includes, 1st, A general View of the State of the Arts, from the commencement of the French Monarchy to the present Time;—2dly, A general Examination of the Arts, and of their constituent Parts;—3dly, The Relations which exist among the Fine Arts, and that which each of them derives from or lends to the Imagination;—4thly, Architecture, its Origin, the Introduction into France of the Arabesque or Saracenic Architecture, improperly called *Gothic*, the Construction and distinguishing Characters of this Architecture, and a Sketch of the different Kinds of Architecture practised in France;—5thly, Sculpture, the Efforts of the first Sculptors, the State of this Art among the Gauls, and through the course of Ages to our own Times;—6thly, The Origin of Painting, the Manner of preparing Colours before the Discovery of Painting in Oil, the State of Painting in France during the Crusades, its Perfection under Francis I., the Causes of its Decline under Louis XV., and the Circumstances which led to its Revival in the succeeding Age;—7thly, Painting on Glass, the Chemical Processes employed by the Antient Glass-painters, and their Mode of Execution, the Advantages of the Employment of the Painter on Glass, Proofs that the Painting on Glass has never been a Secret, and that this Art has never been lost, and on the Manner of painting on Glass;—8thly, Mosaic, its State in France, from the Commencement of the Monarchy and in the following Ages, and the Causes of its Perfection in the nineteenth Century;—9thly, Enamel Painting, its Progress under the Reign of Francis I., and its Perfection in the *seventeenth* and *nineteenth* Centuries;—10thly, The Origin of the Gauls, the Dress and Weapons in use among them, the Druids or Priests of the Gauls, the Costume and Arms of the French under the first Race of their Kings, the civil and military Costume in France from the *ninth* to the *fourteenth* Century, the French Costume under the Reigns of Charles VII., Louis XII., and Francis I., the Causes of the Resumption of the Beard after the Fashion of Henry IV., and the French Costumes in the 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries, and the Introduction in France of those vast Wigs called *in folio*, and the Hoops worn by Women;—11thly, Tournaments; 12thly, the Origin of the Constable of France, considered as the first Dignity of the State;—13thly, the

Colours with which the old Churches were decorated, — 14thly, the Art of making Glass, its Origin, the Use of Squares of Glass in Windows, and a Description of the large Glass Windows which decorate the Museum.'

It will be apparent from this enumeration of the topics selected for discussion, that M. LENOIR has been very diligent in his researches; and that he wishes, while he classes his monuments, to deduce from them some general lessons of instruction. The condition of the arts at any period is considered by him as clearly indicative of the state of civilization; and hence he observes that 'architecture, like all the arts dependent on design, yields to the laws which rule the destinies of empires. Political events either depress or elevate the arts; and architecture, as connected with the wants of life and with domestic habits, indicates more than all the others those marked variations which occur in consequence of the changes of government during the revolution of ages.' From the rudeness of the Celtic monuments both in design and execution, he infers that the Gauls were far from enjoying the civilization which prevailed among the Greeks and Romans; and from the compliments which he pays to the elevation of the arts in France, to the school of *David*, and to the riches which are destined to distinguish the hall of the nineteenth century, — *the hall of the heroic deeds of Napoleon the Great*, — he would have us believe that France is at the pinnacle of political civilization. How little was this writer aware of the transient glory of his Emperor, whom he applauds in the highest strains! How little did he think that so short a time would hurl the object of his adoration from the summit of power; that he, who made all Europe resound with his victories, would be driven from his own capital; that the kings whom he had conquered would take possession of Paris, with all the treasures of arts which he had amassed in the course of his conquests; and that he, whose boundless ambition aspired at the subjugation of all Europe, should be sent in a state of degradation to the little island of Elba! Such is the fate of a man "*qui res humanas miscuit olim!*" M. LENOIR, and a host of writers who complimented Napoleon to the skies, must now obliterate such praises from their pages, and imitate our Walton, who, at a period in our history similar to the present French era, cancelled a dedication prepared for Cromwell, and substituted an address to the restored monarch Charles II. Even the epithet *Imperial*, which M. LENOIR has given to his Museum, must be changed; and all the symbols of the *once great Napoleon* must disappear. How many frontispieces and copper-plates must be destroyed!

Having

Having given a brief sketch of the history of the Gauls, and noticed the monuments which are indicative not only of their knowlege of the arts but of the degree of luxury which prevailed among that people, M. Lenoir passes to the first ages of the French monarchy; prosecuting his researches from Clovis to Louis XIV., repeating many remarks which he had formerly offered on the decline of the arts towards the latter end of this period, and concluding his general considerations with observing that 'the sciences and the arts, as they stimulate industry and nourish commerce, eminently contribute to civilization; so that they may be compared to a river which, multiplying itself as it rolls its waters into different channels, fertilizes many provinces at the same time.'

The constituent parts of Architecture, Painting, and Sculpture are enumerated with suitable comments; and, in a long chapter, the author inculcates the importance of governing the imagination and restraining its wild sallies. 'That celebrated painter, *Julio Romano*,' he remarks, 'having often disregarded reason in his works, and abandoned himself to the full effervescence of his imagination, we see him in the same composition elevating his style to sublimity, and afterward descending to the trivial and the mean.'

To the subject of Stained and Painted Glass, M. Lenoir devotes many pages: presenting us with a history of the art, with which (he thinks) Mosaic works are connected, describing the substances which give different colours to glass, and detailing the process of constructing those beautiful painted windows which cast such a religious gloomy light through the interior of Gothic structures. We cannot transcribe even a quarter of this dissertation: but the following extract will serve to shew the investigating talents of the author:

'*Of the Painting on Glass, and of the Mosaic in France.*

'The fabrication of coloured glass is very antient: the utensils intended either for domestic or sacred purposes, as well as the glass paste imitating engraved stones or gems, which we have from the Egptians, Greeks, and Romans, prove that the antients knew the art of colouring glass, as well as that of enamelling earth and metals. It is certain that, when square pieces of glass began to be substituted in the place of alabaster or talc, with which the windows of temples, palaces, and private dwellings were once inclosed, Taste, that aliment of pleasure, that child of luxurious ease, excited a wish to decorate this glass, and to make it represent entertaining or historical subjects.

'Painting on glass, the epoch of which invention reaches to the time of Cimabué, was not, then, in its origin, any other than decorative painting; and it is in this single point of view that we must consider our antient glass-windows, since they are usually constructed of highly tinted plates very little shaded, but so varied by the most lively colours as to represent a parterre enamelled with flowers.

'We

'We are also of opinion that the successful employment of Mosaic for interior decoration might have led to the invention of painting on glass. Mosaic, it is well known, is composed of little pieces of coloured or enamelled glass: in like manner, the oldest painted windows are nothing more than small portions of coloured glass soldered one to the other in leaden moulded grooves, by which they are held together so as to be placed in a sash of iron, or of any other material; making a kind of picture, like inlaid stones or glass-ware united by mastic or any other cement, and producing the representation which is called Mosaic. We are inclined also to believe that, in the infancy of the art of painting on glass, the artist began with tracing figures in distemper, or with colours diluted in yolk of egg or varnish, on clear glass, before the idea was formed of colouring glass in the fire in order to render the picture more perfect and more durable.

'Before we farther attend to glass-painting, we shall offer a few words on the art of making Mosaic, which we consider as much more antient than that of painting on glass.

'Mosaic, regarded as a kind of decoration, took its birth in the train of the imitative arts, and from its origin was employed by architects in public monuments, sometimes on walls and sometimes on pavements. It is to be wished that our intelligent architects, in imitation of the antients, would combine with their skilful elevations this interesting art, which is capable of producing the most noble effect.

'Previously to having reached the perfection of Mosaic, artists commenced by inserting in walls and pavements flint, silex, pieces of coloured glass, enamel, or marble: by degrees, they reduced these into small divisions; and this art, prosecuted with care, obtained so much favour among the Greeks, that the most celebrated artists were employed on it, and produced in it most magnificent pictures, of which history makes mention. Pliny speaks of one Sosus who worked at Pergamus, and who excelled in the art of fabricating Mosaic. In 1763 were discovered at Pompeii several Mosaics from the hand of Dioscorides, if we may judge by the inscriptions which they exhibit.

'The French also worked in Mosaic: but, as they had no knowlege of the rules of art, they produced only rude figures.—The practice of Mosaic continued in spite of the ignorance which prevailed in the arts of design, and it was cultivated at Rome about the fourteenth century, and at Florence a century later. A president of the parliament of Paris, named *David*, being in that city, caused to be executed under his own eye, and at his expence, a Mosaic, bearing the date of 1500, which represents the Virgin sitting with the infant Jesus on her knees, accompanied by two angels in the act of adoration.

'Towards the end of the last century, the taste for Mosaic came again into fashion at Rome, and the latter Popes incurred considerable expence to support and encourage able workers in Mosaic, whose talents they were jealous of exclusively possessing. They caused to be thus copied, of the same size as the originals, the most beautiful pictures which *Raphaël* had painted for the decoration of the Vatican; and these fine monuments, capable of resisting the ravages of time, embellish the church of St. Peter.

'At

'At last the French government, wishing to rival Italy in this species of the pictorial art, established at Paris (some years ago) a school of Mosaic for the deaf and dumb. The direction of this little philanthropic academy is confided to M. *Belloni;* and already these unfortunate children, who are instructed with equal zeal and care, execute Mosaics which may be put in competition with the best of those of Italy.'

The subject of Glass-making and the knowlege and application of this material are discussed in a subsequent part of this work, to which we must refer the antiquary.

M. LENOIR appears to have paid much attention to the various fashions which, in different ages, have prevailed in France: but, however necessary these details may be in illustrating the antiquities of that empire, we should fatigue our readers by following him through this portion of his history. It is unnecessary also for us to quote his account of Tournaments, or to transcribe a long list of the Constables of France, which can excite no interest on this side of the water; and as to his concluding section, on the *yellow*, *blue*, and *red* colours with which he tells us the antient churches were decorated, he has offered nothing worthy of notice.

This description of the Monuments is perhaps the most ample and correct of any hitherto published, and the volume of plates will assist those who cannot visit Paris in understanding the explanation. We must not close this imperfect sketch of M. LENOIR's exhibition without applauding his talents, industry, and taste; and hoping that he will be patronized by Louis the Eighteenth.

ART. XII. *Dictionnaire Français Espagnol, et Espagnol Français, &c.; i. e.* A French and Spanish and Spanish and French Dictionary: more complete and correct than any that has yet appeared, including that of *Capmany*. By NUNEZ DE TABOADA. 2 large Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2l. 8s.

THIS work is founded on a dictionary compiled and published by Señor *Capmany:* but the present editor has enlarged the vocabulary by the insertion of geographical names, and of some of the most usual of the terms introduced by the French Revolution, the whole of which were rejected by *Capmany* as mere ephemeral jargon. We are told that Señor NUNEZ applied himself during six years exclusively to this object; and the performance appears to have fully repaid the labour bestowed on it, since it is not only the best dictionary of the two languages which we have seen, but, for comprehensiveness, conciseness, perspicuity, and correctness, may be proposed as a model for undertakings of a similar nature.

ART.

ART. XIII. *Nouvelles Recherches*, &c.; *i. e.* New Researches concerning the Origin and Design of the Pyramids of Egypt: a Work in which the Author endeavours to demonstrate that these wonderful Productions contain not only the Elementary Principles of the Abstract and Occult Sciences, but also those of the Arts which are useful to Society. Followed by a Dissertation on the End of the Terrestrial Globe. By A. P. J. DE V——. 8vo. pp. 151. Paris. 1812. Imported by De Boffe. Price 5s.

To make sport for the Philistines, that is for critics and other folks who can be amused with nonsense, foolish writers will sometimes, in our own island, publish very foolish books; and our neighbours, who are never behind in the career of folly, afford us similar sport by sending forth, from time to time, works as truly ridiculous as any that are to be found in the English language. It would be difficult perhaps to meet with a volume, either in Great Britain or on the Continent, which abounds with more sublimed absurdity than the two dissertations of A P. J. DE V—— now before us. In the first, this man of many letters, but little sense, labours to shew that the Pyramids of Egypt were built by the *Nephilim* or Giants who existed before the flood, and that each of these pyramids may be considered as an isolated Lyceum for the study and preservation of some particular science. In the second, he boldly undertakes to develope the intentions of Providence respecting the whole planetary system; to inform us that this earth and the other planets are destined to be renovated at certain periods by universal conflagrations and deluges; and that, as the present surface of our globe was designed to last only 6000 years, the indispensable catastrophe of an universal conflagration will take place in the year 1999, when the present race will be entirely swept away. To prove both of these very curious positions, the author is extremely liberal in his quotations of the Holy Scriptures: but he appears to have *read them with his eyes, and to have understood them with his elbows*, as the boys say at school. As a proof of his extreme ignorance, he cites passages from the Septuagint-version of the New Testament; and he often quotes texts from the Old Testament which bear not the least relation to his subject. Moses is introduced, on all occasions, in the dissertation respecting the Pyramids: but, as this native of Egpyt makes no mention whatever of the Pyramids, nor is ever found to allude to them, his silence is a negative proof that these stupendous monuments did not exist in his time. — Never was absurdity carried to a greater excess.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN CATALOGUE.

NOVELS.

Art. 14. *La Baronne de Merville*, &c.; *i. e.* The Baroness *de Merville*, or the Errors of Love. By Ch. Hypp. Perrin. 12mo. 4 Vols. Paris. 1813. London, De Boffe. Price 1l.

In the introduction to these letters, the author pretends to wish 'that they had displayed *more virtue*;' and this is the only point on which we agree with him, since we are far from deeming these compositions either 'lively or agreeable.' On the contrary, we think that many of them are pert and inelegant; while the tendency of the whole collection is grossly immoral, and many passages are too indelicate to be tolerated in an English translation.

Art. 15. *Ambrosina*, &c.; *i. e.* Ambrosina. By J. B. Carpentier. 12mo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1813. London, De Boffe. Price 9s.

The character of *D'Almaville*, who goes about redressing wrongs committed by his father, and thus effects that parent's reformation, is here well imagined: but M. *des Rieux* should have been described as possessing some good quality for a basis on which his son's merit could work, whereas he is shewn to be so completely vile that the reader expects to see him punished, and is surprized rather than pleased by his amendment.

Some scenes of villainy are also detailed too largely, and little effect is given to the female characters, or to the more pleasing parts of the story; which, however, seems intended to be moral, and at least cannot be mischievous.

Art. 16. *Eudoxie*, &c.; *i. e.* Eudocia, or the Generous Friend. By Henry V——n. 12mo. 3 Vols. Paris. 1813. Imported by De Boffe. Price 9s.

Some interesting scenes and pleasing reflections are supplied in this novel. The character of *Eudocia* affords an example of principle triumphing over attachment: but it can scarcely be said to furnish a case of eminent generosity, since *Eudocia* does not resign her lover from a desire of securing his happiness, nor from friendship towards the faulty *Alphonsine*.

We must add that, in this tale, the line which separates virtue from vice is not sufficiently marked; since the errors of *Montigny*, which are dangerous and dishonourable, pass without due reprehension, while his atonement for them is exalted into an act of heroism. On the other hand, *Eudocia*'s notions of filial piety occasion a romantic sacrifice which neither duty nor common sense would recommend.

Art. 17. *L'Enfant de ma Femme*, &c.; *i. e.* The Child of my Wife. By M. Ch. Paul Dekock. 12mo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1813. London, De Boffe. Price 9s. sewed.

This story has neither moral nor merit; and it contains so many indecorous descriptions and allusions, that our duty requires us to warn all readers against the perusal of it.

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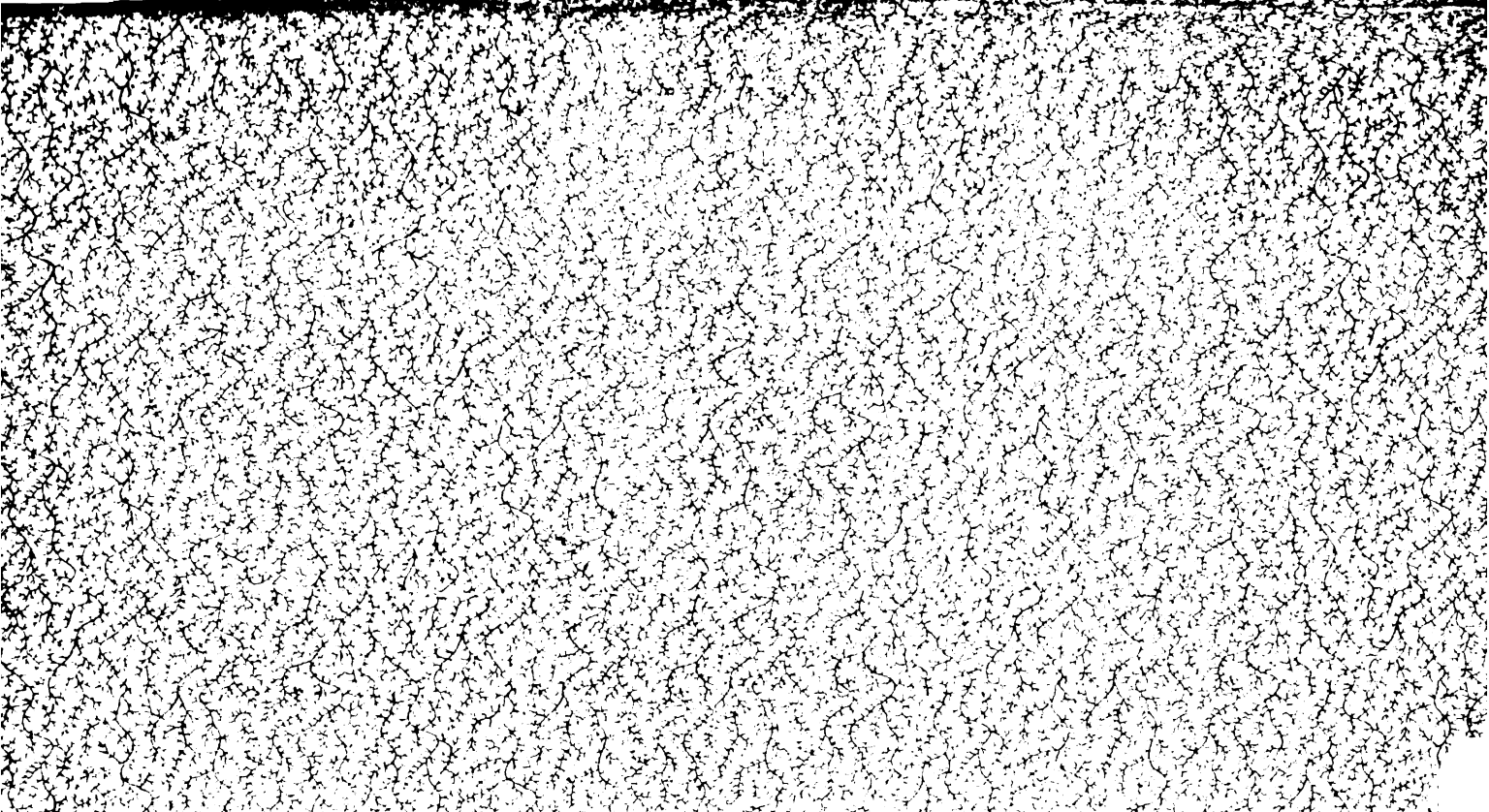

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